Life and Work of the People of England

Dorothy Hartley &
Margaret M. Elliot

The Fifteenth Century

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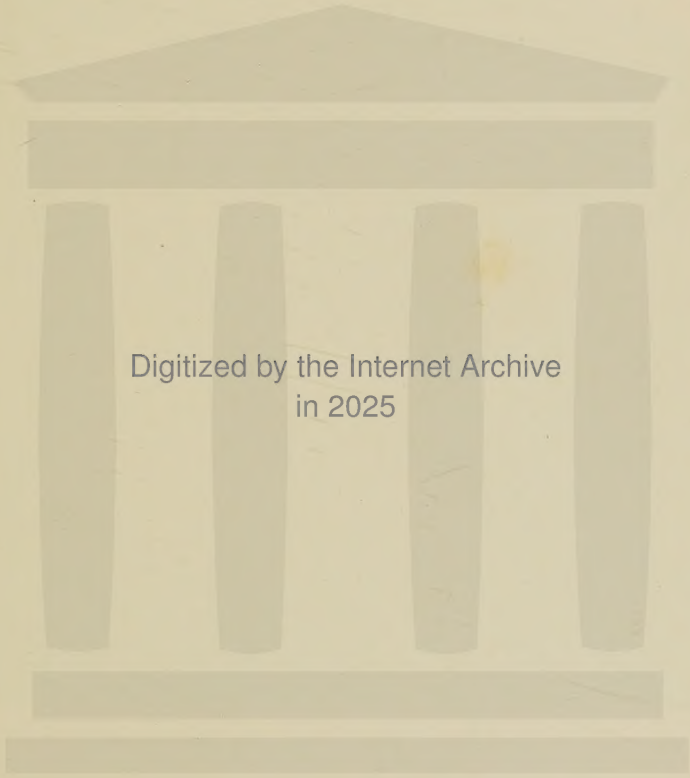
By DOROTHY HARTLEY and MARGARET M. ELLIOT

LIFE AND WORK OF THE PEOPLE OF ENGLAND

THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY
THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

In Preparation:

THE CONQUEST TO 1300
THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY
THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY
THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY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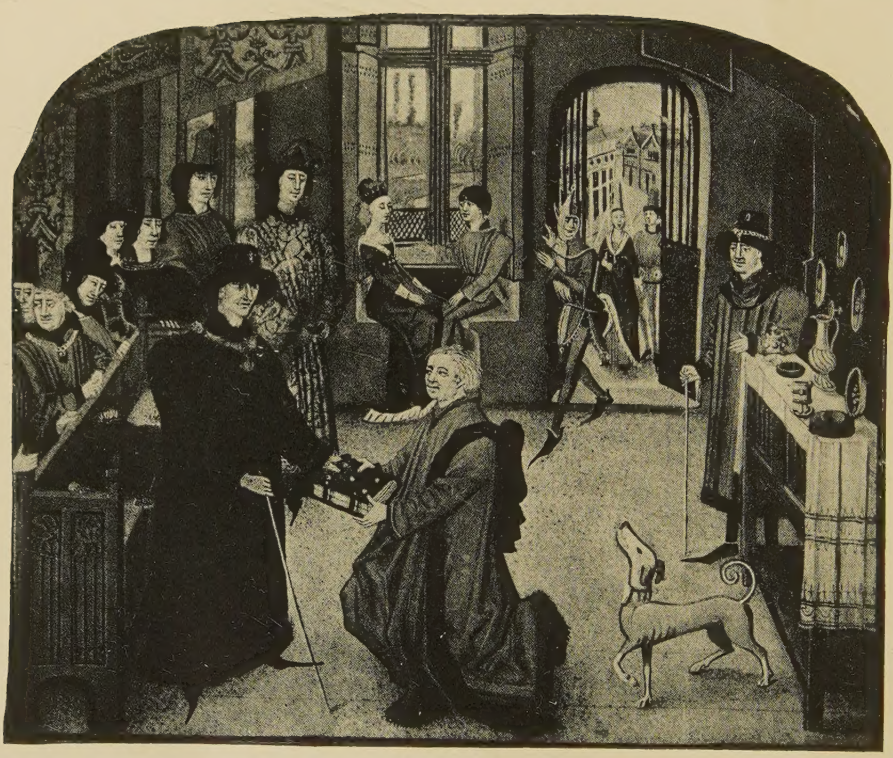

INTERIOR VIEW IN WEALTHY HOUSEHOLD.

The scribe presenting the illuminated volume to his patron.

LIFE AND WORK OF THE PEOPLE OF ENGLAND

A PICTORIAL RECORD
FROM CONTEMPORARY SOURCES

The Fifteenth Century

BY

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With 164 Illustrations

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PREFACE

THE object of this book is to give a view of the social life of the century through the eyes of the people who lived in it. We have tried to select records suitable for general and school use, which has meant examining some thousands of MSS., prints, drawings and reference books, and the material is so abundant that only by careful selection and stern elimination could the results be condensed into a series fairly comprehensive, and yet sufficiently inexpensive. We deeply regret that much of interest must inevitably be omitted, but the material presented can readily lead to further research.

A general introduction outlines the characteristics of the century, and a series of notes gives points of detail which, it is hoped, will be found interesting. The plates comprise about one hundred and fifty pictures covering the main departments of human life, and were selected in consultation with teachers and scholars. It is obviously impossible to illustrate any subject exhaustively or to give alternatives.

The artists set down the everyday life around them—hence they are primarily records, though some have artistic value; others appear strange to modern eyes,

but are interesting examples of the conventions of contemporary art methods. Thus the people are frequently drawn to a much larger scale than the buildings.

The purpose of illustrating contemporary life renders these pictures independent of the original subject, historical or classical, which they originally illustrated, and it is therefore considered inadvisable to complicate the work by referring to it.

The connection between England and France and Flanders was then close and intimate, so it has been found necessary to draw material from all these sources. There is, of course, no definite break between two centuries, and we have endeavoured to show early and late examples in the period.

No doubt we shall have all sorts of criticism—no one can criticise more strongly than we who are the authors, but friends must understand that it is primarily a picture and reference book for schools, and it is only by most careful scheming that we have managed to give 150 pictures, and accompanying text, in the available space.

For the rest we can only hope that the volume as planned may afford readers something of the pleasure we have found in its compilation, and may encourage to further enquiry and research, if only to extend and revise the results now presented. We shall always be happy to receive corrections, and suggestions, care of the publishers.

Now may we very gladly thank all our numerous

helpers: firstly the authorities of the British Museum, from which much material is derived; and especially the staff of the Manuscript Room for unfailing kindness and help. We are also indebted to the Library and Print-Room of the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Bodleian Library, Oxford, the Cambridge Libraries, the Society of Antiquaries, the collection of Sir Robert Witt, and particularly our publisher, Mr. Harry Batsford, without whose able help this book would never have appeared; we hope the staff and children of many schools will thank him for the book he has given us.

Messrs. Chappell, of Regent Street, have kindly permitted the reproduction of the Music, from *Old English Popular Music*, 1893, by W. Chappell.

D. R. H.
M. M. E.

August, 1925.

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Life and Work of the People of England in the Fifteenth Century

Introductory Note

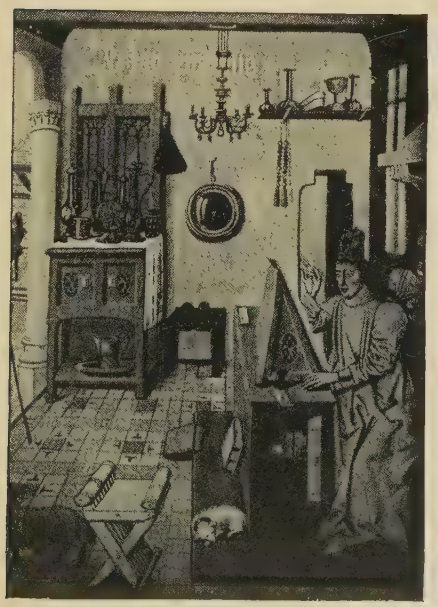
THE fifteenth century in Europe was a wonderful period, full of brilliant colour, and the great people of the time pass before us like figures in a pageant. The chroniclers of this century loved to exaggerate, but these very exaggerations give us the spirit of the times, and that is what we must have in order to enjoy any period in history.

The first point of importance about the fifteenth century is that it was a time of transition, from the period known as the Middle Ages to a new era, entirely different in thought and outlook on life. The Age of Chivalry was giving place to one of commerce and great discoveries. The first part of the century is a pageant of chivalry, with Agincourt as its centre and Henry V as its type of knightly king; while later on we see the gradual dying out of the old feudal families (principally through the Wars of the Roses) and an increasing interest in trade. Even during the first half of the century we see quite unmistakable signs of the great change; feudal service had been gradually giving place to personal freedom since the Black Death, and life as a whole was more independent. Town life was increasing enormously and

the making of money led to a rise in social position, while a commercial spirit influenced all classes.

The People.—We must remember that the people of those times were really no different from ourselves, but their outlook on life was different and their notions of right and wrong very fixed. We learn much about them from the illuminated manuscripts and the buildings, wood-carvings, metal-work, etc., which they have left us, sometimes in quite unexpected places. For example, those curious little wood-carvings called "Misericords," under the tip-up seats of the stalls in cathedrals and churches, give us a splendid picture of social life. The artists carved pictures of daily happenings, and covered a wide range of subjects. We see the quarrelsome couple wrangling over the fire, butchers cutting up meat, reapers gathering in the harvest. These were a vigorous people, with a zest for life and a quaint sense of humour, while a bond of religious thought united them in a way that is not easy for us to understand. Nobody in those days thought of separating worldly from religious affairs; all who were able heard Mass daily, and the best way for a rich man to impress others was by church-building or donations to the poor. It does not follow that every man who did this acted from motives of religious fervour; the convention of the period demanded it, and in the fifteenth century, just as in the twentieth, people liked to do as their better neighbours did.

(a) A Professional MS. Worker.



(b) A Rich Amateur at his Desk.

(a) A Man, About to Eat too Much.

(b) A Talker—and a Listener.

(c) A Gentle but Firm-minded Woman.

(a) A Plausible Beggar—Being Lucky.

(b) Young Folks who Are Happy in the Garden.

(a) A Ragged Old Beggar.

(b) A Cross Woman.

The fat money bag belies her frayed clothing.

(c) A Cripple.

Social Rank.—The idea of chivalry still lingered throughout this century and people were still inclined to attribute all the virtues to the nobility as their right. John Russell, who was Marshal to Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, gloried in his service, and refers to his master as the "prince full royal," "that prince peerless," though history tells us that the duke had his fair share of faults. Though his life was full of elaborate etiquette, the knight was no longer the most important type of man. A new middle class was growing up, of hard-working practical merchants, tradesmen and farmers, whose importance increased as the century progressed; and thus a new gentry was formed. Some, like the De La Pole family, had risen through trade, others by loot and ransoms, others again by sheer industry. Of this new type was the Paston family, whose letters are such a valuable source of social history. These Pastons form a typical and interesting family whose most striking trait is shrewd, sound common sense. The women of the family are remarkable, especially Margaret Paston, who besides attending to her household, kept accounts, collected rents, and even took actions in law courts in her husband's absence.

In many ways the fifteenth century folk were splendid, and their ordinary actions were marked by extraordinary energy and thoroughness. The cathedrals of the period, e.g. Gloucester, Canterbury Nave, and York, speak volumes for their builders, and even the objects of everyday

use were beautiful. Art was not above the lives of ordinary folk; all classes of people had an instinctive sense of beauty and fitness. Their furniture and utensils were beautiful and appropriate (pl. 1, 80–84(a)), just as ours are often ugly and inharmonious. Their homes may not have been as comfortable as ours, but they were works of art (see pl. 7 (a), 11, 1). The pictures show how wonderful the mediæval cities were with their towers and pinnacles (pl. 54 (a), 56–62, 64 (b), 68, 69, 87, 88), though the streets were narrow, crooked and undrained.

As the century progressed, the great difficulties in social rank tended to diminish and a man's income became his best (or worst!) recommendation. The Church and the Law might bring him riches, he could go into trade or enrich himself by fighting in somebody's war, or he might arrange a wealthy marriage. John Russell (and who should know better than a Marshal in such matters?) was careful to place the rich Abbot of Westminster above the poor Abbot of Tintern at table.

Town Progress.—Most of the progress of the fifteenth century was in town life. England was becoming a land of manufacturing towns, with everyone busy making and selling goods. The towns were independent communities; the inhabitants elected their own rulers, made laws, and jealously guarded their special rights and privileges. Each citizen felt individually responsible for the welfare of his city, and put its interests with his own private affairs. Rich townsfolk sometimes car-

ried out town repairs at their own expense. At Canterbury in 1400, two traders built a bridge over the river, and in 1485 a mercer made the first main drain at his own expense. Again, rich citizens would often lend money to the town corporation. When Edward IV first visited Canterbury in 1460, three leading citizens advanced large sums for his entertainment, and cheerfully waited some five years for repayment. In time of war, every citizen was expected to take part in the defence of his town.

As the towns grew in importance, so the number of craft guilds increased. A craft guild was a kind of trade union of all the men employed in one craft. They were now at the height of their power, and in York there were at one time sixty of these guilds. Their immense number was largely due to the elaborate organisation of almost every occupation, and the careful system of division of labour. For instance, in 1409 an ordinance was issued to prevent the two principal classes of shoemakers from encroaching on each other's work. "Cordwainers" were makers of new shoes, and "Cobblers" menders of old ones. The cobbler might patch the soles and the uppers, but if an old shoe needed an entirely new sole, then the cordwainer must make it. In the same way, no person was allowed to sell both brown and white bread.

The commercial spirit which was gaining such a hold had its bad and good sides. On the one hand it made

men so eager for gain that they sometimes lost their sense of honesty and fair play, and the "Memorials of London" furnish us with examples of fifteenth century fraud. There is a suggestion of modern "flag-days" in the enterprise of one William Derman (labourer) in 1412, who went around with a box declaring that he was collecting alms for Bedlam Hospital. He gathered quite a lot of money, but was found out and condemned to an hour in the pillory. In the same year a certain John Beresford offered a box containing sixteen gold nobles and a necklace to a pelterer in exchange for a number of furs; but while the latter were being selected, the wily John drew from under his mantle another box exactly like the first, sealed and filled with sand and stones. He was also arrested, and sentenced to an hour in the pillory for three days. But the commercial spirit, with all its faults, taught men to manage their own affairs and brought Englishmen into contact with other nations and new ideas. Trade was not always an easy path to prosperity, for sea and land routes were infested with robbers (pl. 33), and thus commerce fostered the courage and love of adventure which made England such a prominent sea-power in the days of Elizabeth.

The Landscape.—Now let us try to visualize the fifteenth century English landscape of which the pictures give a good idea. There must have been much uncultivated land, forest, moor, and marsh. The arable land near the villages was divided into long strips and there

(a) A Nun Reading in Chapel.

(b) A Rich Lady Reading Before her Altar Picture

(a) Interior View of a Nobleman's Court.

(b) A King's Banquet.

The steward and servers with napkins over shoulders.

A Coronation Procession.

A Court Affair.

Everybody seems very pleased about it.

were large tracts of rough grazing land for the sheep and cattle. The buildings, of local materials, varied with the landscape and were picturesque enough (pl. 56(b), 57–59, 68, 69). Great stone castles and manor houses (pl. 34, 35), and abbeys were surrounded by small patches of green meadowland. A village or "manor" consisted of rude wattle huts for the peasants (pl. 38 (a)), stout timber houses for the farmers (pl. 32, 52), and in the midst of these the parish church with its tower (spire) and stained glass windows. Sometimes the village might boast of an inn, though it would be a comfortless place and better hospitality could be found at one of the numerous monasteries. Most roads were narrow and uneven, some of them merely muddy tracks. It was often quite impossible to use carts in bad weather, so pack-horses never lacked work and the bridges were sometimes only wide enough for the latter to pass. In some districts the green farm country was varied by a mine or quarry, alive with workmen (pl. 41 (b)); or by a picturesque town encircled by thick walls (pl. 87). Each town stood out by itself as an independent unit, cut off from the country life around it by its laws and the activities of its inhabitants.

The Ways to Prosperity and Power.—We have already seen something of the character of fifteenth century people and how social distinctions were gradually being worn down. Although the nobility made a splendid show of power, they were no longer the only people of

importance; they had serious rivals in the merchants, for their power now depended as much on their wealth as their feudal ties, and their retainers were not vassals, but paid servants. Some of them, like Sir William Plumpton, did not hesitate to marry rich middle-class heiresses, and it became possible for any man to raise himself socially, provided he could find the money. Men could no longer be divided into two great classes, lords and villeins, for there was now a strong middle-class and land was prized chiefly because of the revenues that could be made out of it. Great nobles and churchmen were not above commerce, for we read that Queen Margaret of Anjou was granted special privileges for exporting wool. The love of money became widespread, as is shown in the popular songs of the period, such as "London Lickpenny" with its refrain:

For lack of money I could not spede.

A yeoman could become a gentleman by entering a lord's house, and "spending large and plenty." As for a coat of arms, anyone who cared to do so appropriated one, and, provided it did not already belong to someone else, no trouble was made.

With all this levelling of rank the nobleman had to look to his laurels; he still had his lands and castles, but most of his tenants were freemen and owed him nothing except rent. So he hired mercenaries to be his "men"

and wear his livery. He also offered reward to less wealthy knights and squires if they would undertake to fight his battles.

Meanwhile yeomen farmers were becoming very prosperous. They rented land from their overlords and worked it themselves. Even the villeins had practically won their freedom and received money payment for their services, though in so doing they also lost their right to protection from an overlord, a serious loss in those lawless days. But the old feudal idea of service and loyalty to one man was dying out, and each one studied his own profit.

Religion.—Since religion was so integrally connected with everyday life, bishop and abbots naturally held an exalted position. They were all landowners and proportionately wealthy, but while most were rich men some of the parish clergy had very small incomes. People complained bitterly of the bishop's extravagance, and another grievance was that English sees were sometimes given to foreigners, who seldom if ever visited them. There was also a very bad system known as "pluralities," by which the same priest might be given several livings at once, and all this gave rise to complaints against the rulers of the Church.

Education.—A striking feature of this century was a growing desire for education. By the reign of Henry IV any man was allowed to send his children to school. Masters of trades often undertook to provide their appren-

tices with a certain amount of education. In 1462, a boy of fourteen was apprenticed to a haberdasher for twelve years and the master undertook to provide him with two years' schooling in grammar and writing. Reading, writing, reckoning, and the knowledge of foreign languages were highly valued in these commercial circles. This desire for education is seen in the number of new schools and colleges founded during this century, and the anxiety of parents to secure schooling for their children. Judge Paston was careful to leave strict injunctions in his will concerning the education of his three sons. Rich men sometimes sent poor children to school or college, or left bequests to schoolmasters to teach a certain number of poor scholars without fee. But the Renaissance, with the love of learning for its own sake, really influenced England early in the next century.

During the fifteenth century many new schools were founded, perhaps the most famous of these being Eton College, which we owe to Henry VI, and the trading classes and craft guilds were responsible for many free grammar schools. The Latin language was the chief study at schools and universities. Chantry[1] priests were often paid to keep schools in which boys were given a surface knowledge of Latin, enough for church services, but monastic and grammar schools taught the language thoroughly. A student generally went up to Oxford or

[1] A chantry was a small chapel where special priests were appointed to say masses for the dead.

A Small Banquet.

Minstrel gallery in full blast; stewards, pages and servers all busy.

A Presentation Volume in an Upper Chamber.

Beds were remade as day couches; the windows are fitted with wooden shutters.

A Lower Room. The Hearth is Empty for the Summer.

Study linen-fold panels on furniture

A Wonderful Picture of a Banquet.

The battle scene behind is just a bright tapestry.

Cambridge in his early teens, where it took him four years to become a Bachelor of Arts; once a B.A., he might take up the special study of theology, law, or medicine. Latin was used for lectures and "disputations" (discussions) all over Europe; it was still a living language, and no English student going to study in Paris or Padua would feel at a loss. Students were on the whole a wild, unruly crowd, not a surprising fact considering their average age. They managed to make plenty of fun out of life, just as they do nowadays; but their idea of fun was not always popular with the townsfolk, and often led to free fights.

The education of girls was carried out on different lines. Sometimes they were sent to school, or in the case of girls of rank the nuns at some neighbouring convent would teach them a little. Generally, however, they were brought up at home or in some other household, and it was not so much the efficiency of the teaching as the varied aspects of housekeeping in those days that made their training so comprehensive.

Later, paper was used for some books instead of the expensive parchment made from skins, though most of it had to be imported. A very popular type of book was a "book of courtesy," which gave the most minute details of how to behave in daily life. John Russell wrote a *Boke of Nurture*, in which he describes most carefully the duties of all the officials in a great lord's house. Another of these books declares that:

> Clerkes, who these seven arts scan
> Say courtesy from Heaven came
> When Gabriel Our Lady greet
> And Elizabeth with Mary met.

In another rhyme called the "School of Virtue," children are instructed how to behave at school. A schoolboy must bring pen, ink and paper with him, and on the way politely take off his cap to those he meets and give way to them in the road. At school, he should salute his master and the scholars, go straight to his place, undo his satchel and begin his lessons. He must work hard at his books if he wishes to be thought worthy to serve the State. This kind of literature was particularly useful to the new middle class, who were anxious to be classed as gentlemen and gentlewomen. Many people collected useful libraries, among them John Paston who owned such volumes as the *Life of Saint Chrystopher*, a *Copy of Blazoning of Arms*, a *Book of Knighthood.*

Country Life.—Life in the country had not changed very much. The lord of the manor lived in as comfortable a house as he could afford, surrounded by servants and men-at-arms. He had found out the advantages of sheep-farming, and began to enclose much of his land for pasture instead of growing crops. Often he went so far as to enclose the common pasture land, so that the peasants had nowhere for their own animals. This was a terrible loss to them, and the cause of a great deal of unemployment and discontent. The expense of hired

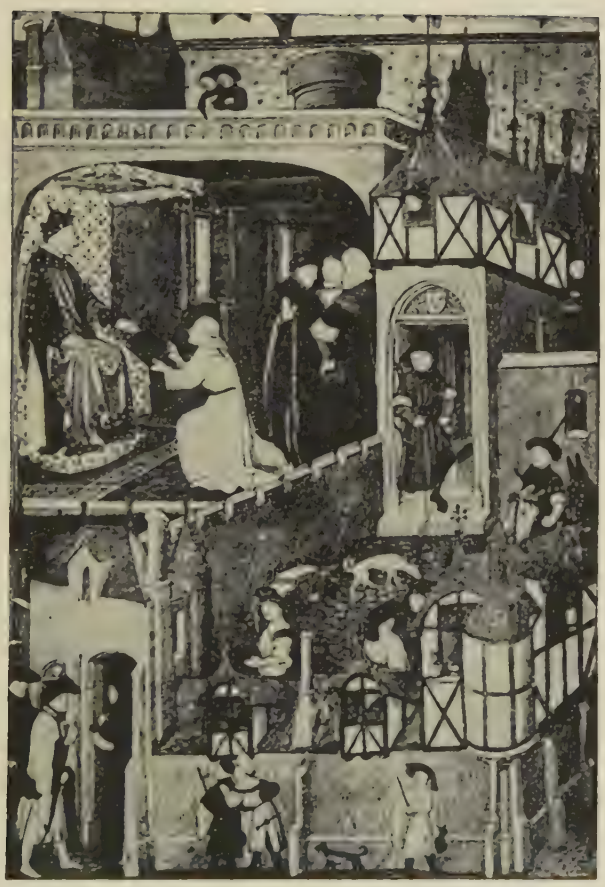
labour often caused the lord to let out his arable land for rent instead of working it himself. While the noble entertained guests at his house or hunted or made war on his enemy, farmers and peasants worked from sunrise to sunset, driving the plough-oxen over the fields (pl. 31 (a)) and striving to improve their newly-acquired lands (pl. 34, 35). A good harvest was an important matter for the village, for it ensured a supply of corn for the winter, and since the people lived largely on salted meat and fish, their bread and porridge foods were very important.

Town Life.—Town life was meanwhile more prosperous. The narrow streets bordered by shops were full of activity. London, according to a Venetian ambassador who wrote about the year 1500, abounded "with every article of luxury, as well as with the necessaries of life." The Venetian remarked on the immense quantity of wrought silver to be seen in London. "In one single street, named the Strand, leading to St. Paul's," he wrote, "there are fifty-two goldsmiths' shops, so rich and full of silver vessels, great and small, that in all the shops in Milan, Rome, Venice, and Florence put together, I do not think there would be found so many of the magnificence that are to be seen in London." Merchants built themselves handsome town dwellings with gardens, and the townsfolk were proud of their churches and town and guild halls. Some of these halls survive to this day, such as the York Guild Hall, Cirencester Town Hall, St. Mary's

Hall at Coventry, and the Guild Hall at King's Lynn in Norfolk. Almost every large town had at least one guild hall. The people were glad to advertise their guilds by buildings which vied with one another in size and splendour, and there was much rivalry between towns in this respect. Once a week market-day came, when tradespeople and country folk sold and exchanged goods in the market place, in which stood the market cross. Pictures of shops in this book (pl. 54–56) show that many of them were simply stalls (pl. 56 (b)), but those that were not had to be made with an open front, so that customers could see the goods being made at the back of the shop (pl. 54 (b)). Town inns were numerous, displaying, like the shops, all sorts of attractive signs over their doors to entice customers.

The citizens elected their own rulers, a council consisting of a mayor and a number of aldermen, who were held in great respect. The king also had a representative, a sheriff. This gentleman had rather a lively time of it, perhaps because he often came from another part of the country and was therefore regarded as an outsider. He, or his under-sheriff, who did the more unpleasant tasks, often came in for some rough treatment. Richard Calle, bailiff on the Paston estate, describes in one of his letters how a certain under-sheriff was set upon by the people and would have been slain had not the mayor and sheriff come to the rescue.

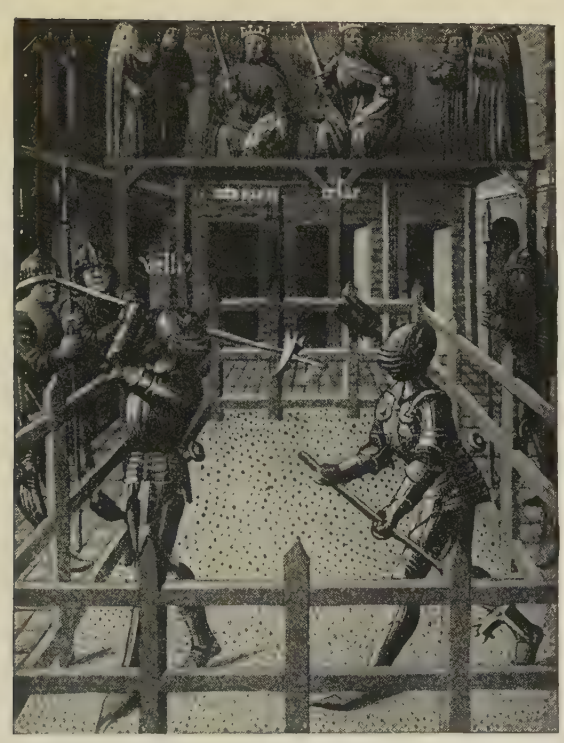
Merchants, tradesmen and craftsmen, with their ap-



SEVERAL PICTURES IN ONE.

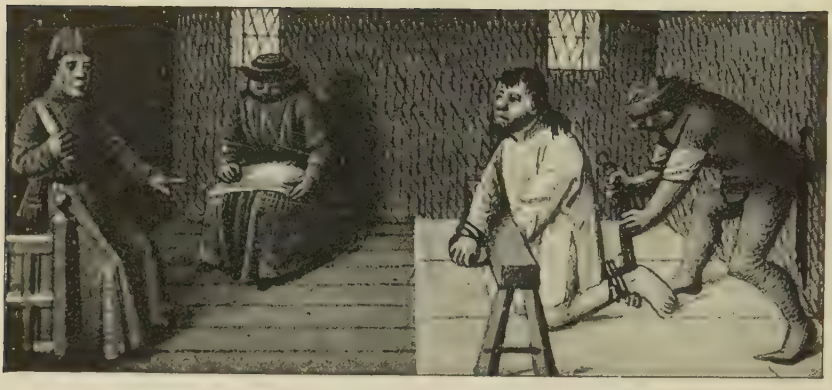
A street scene; a courtyard scene; view in a room where a monk hands a volume to a lord.

JUSTICE AND COURTS OF LAW, PLEADERS, ACCUSED, WITNESS AND JAILORS.



(a) The Unsolved Problem Being "Fought Out" in Single Combat.
Evil is depicted as a black bird.

(b) Malefactors Caught.



(a) Examined with Severity (Sometimes Tortured to Force Confession).

(b) Driven to Execution in a Cart.

prentices made up the principal types of townsfolk.[1] They worked hard, but had their fair share of enjoyment as well. For one thing, all religious feasts were holidays, shops were shut, and craftsmen went in procession through the streets, carrying guild banners, or acted stories from Scripture in the market place. Sometimes a fair was held in the town. That meant great excitement, for with tradesmen and pedlars from afar came musicians, clowns, dancers and jugglers to entertain the good citizens.

TRADE.—England in the fifteenth century carried on an extensive foreign trade. A Company of Merchant Adventurers obtained a charter from Henry IV in 1407 and traded chiefly with Germany and the Netherlands. Bristol was doing a considerable trade with Spain and Portugal, sending English fish and cloth in exchange for wines and fruit. Some merchants became rich enough to equip small fleets of trading vessels. One named William Cannynges in the year 1461 had ten ships and was employing eight hundred seamen. English ships sailed over the seas, bearing raw wool and woollen cloth, lead and tin, hides, salt, honey and butter, and brought in return gold, silver, ivory, wines, silks and spices. Though foreign merchants were allowed to trade within the country (indeed the kings often encouraged them)

[1] Geoffrey Loveye, a mercer and citizen of London, was sentenced to an hour's pillory for slandering and cursing an alderman. The latter, however, was generous enough to get him released on condition of his future good behaviour.

they were never popular and laws had to be made to limit their activities.[1]

Workers in the same craft were united in a craft guild, whose business it was to see that members and customers had good value. Special officials called "searchers" were appointed whose task was to inspect shops and the goods for sale. These guild officials had an eye on the conduct of their members too. In 1469 a craftsman of the London Goldsmiths' Company had to pay a fine for taking "unsearched" stuff to Coventry Fair. At another time a man was fined ten pounds for the "ungoodly language and unwomanly demeaning" of his wife; and on yet another occasion a man was summoned before the guild for "calling Davie Panter 'false-knave' and 'rough-footed Scot,' and casting a weight at his head." Guilds also had their social and religious sides. They acted as insurance companies in providing for the widows of dead members, had masses said for the latter's souls; they repaired roads and bridges, and were responsible for plays and pageants on feast days.[2]

INDUSTRIES.—Many industries flourished in England during the fifteenth century; a glance at certain pages of

[1] One statue declared that there were "damage and losses daily to the King and his people by buying and selling merchandise by aliens and strangers," and that "these aliens be greatly enriched and the King's subjects impoverished thereby, and great treasure is by these aliens carried out of the realm."

[2] In 1444, the expenses of the Goldsmiths' Company included payments to minstrels on St. Dunstan's Day, St. Dunstan being the patron of goldsmiths.

this book will give an idea of the more important ones. There is first of all the industry of cloth-making, which, with its processes of spinning (pl. 43 (b)), weaving (pl. 44 (a), 46, 47), cleansing, stretching, combing and dyeing (pl. 40 (a)), employed a great number.

Spinning and weaving were mostly done by women (pl. 44 (a), 46, 47), as was the manufacture of silk. Edward IV bought silk tassels for his books from a silkwoman named Alice Claver. Women, too, frequently engaged in trade; in 1416, two wives of poulterers were sent to prison for "profiteering" in the sale of woodcocks and partridges.

Other busy people were the gold and silversmiths (pl. 54 (b), 55), pewterers, makers of church furniture (an important item in mediæval times), and builders (pl. 48–53); potters, kept busy making clay tiles for roofs and floors, leather workers, glass blowers (pl. 42), (the latter not so numerous because most glass was imported). Lead, silver, iron, and coal were mined, building stone, marble and alabaster quarried (pl. 41 (b)). There were special foundries for the making of bells. The fishing industry was very important, and so also was the work of the public brewer. He was compelled by law to brew even if malt were dear; before selling his ale he had to send for the official taster to see if it contained enough malt.

Guilds and town councils had always to be taking measures against the frequent frauds that were practised. False weights and measures were used, coarse leather

dressed to look like a better quality and sold to unsuspicious customers, cloth stretched too thin for good wear. In short, the fifteenth century craftsman had many methods of swindling his customers and needed careful watching.

Workmen of all crafts had long hours. Country labourers worked from daylight until it was dark, but in most occupations work ceased on Saturday at noon till the Monday following, and there were many church feast days when work was forbidden.

BUILDING.—Building (especially church building) deserves special consideration because it was not only an industry but also an art in the fifteenth century (pl. 48–53). You will find some splendid pictures of it in this book. Notice how in most cases a man in the centre directs the workers, and how industrious they all are under his supervision, as in pl. 52, 53. Wherever a building was to be erected, masons came together there, and special lodgings were provided, and elaborate rules drawn up. They were fined for damaging tools, quarrelling, or coming late to work. In frosty weather they usually had to leave off outdoor work, and they made a practice of covering up the unfinished building with turf or tiles. On pl. 50 there is a picture of this. Bricks were used in building, with wood and stone, particularly in the East of England, where building stone was scarce.

Some entirely new churches were built at this period, but very many were enlarged. This was done chiefly

Supper for One—a Dish of Little Wild Birds.

Notice the well-appointed kitchen.

THREE FRIENDS MAKING MUSIC WITH PIPE, MANDOLINE AND SMALL HARP.

A Romantic Castle.

In peace times the flowers grew on the lower walls and terraces.

(a) The Women Folk Required Herbs.

Here are two ladies "digging" and helping to "dig" in a garden.

(b) Gathering Flowers and Making Garlands.

(c) A Small Enclosed Garden Among the Fortifications.

by adding new aisles and widening those already there, by heightening the walls and making larger windows. Roofs were made flat and towers and porches added, so that the appearance of the church was entirely altered. The style of architecture of this period is known as PERPENDICULAR, and you will know it by the upright lines of the window-tracery and wall-panelling. Glorious and stately churches were these, with their big stained glass windows and wonderful roofs. Stone vaulting became rich and elaborate like that in Henry VII's chapel at Westminster. Tall and stately towers were built, such as the central ones of York and Canterbury, Magdalen Tower at Oxford, and many in Somerset and Norfolk.

Country houses on the borders of Wales or Scotland were naturally built with an eye to defence above all. But in the interior of England this was not so vital, and many elegant manor houses were built, such as Haddon Hall (a very large one) and Great Chalfield Manor (one of the smaller kind). The windows were made larger and lower, the courtyards wider, and gardens were laid out with many shrubs and gaily coloured flowers (pl. 20, 21). Most large houses now had chimneys made of brick and stone. Town dwellings (pl. 57–63 (a)), generally of two or three storeys, were built of wood or wood and stone. They contained a number of rooms of about the same size, and, when timber-built, one storey overhung another, thereby economising in space, but shutting out a great deal of light from the streets. The George

at Glastonbury, a pilgrims' inn, is a fine example of a stone town house of the fifteenth century.

Windows were often filled with oiled linen or thin horn, but during this century glass windows became commoner (pl. 11). Sometimes the upper parts of windows were glazed, while the lower ones were fitted with wooden shutters.

Life in the Manor House.—The master of a manor house lived a very ceremonious life. His lady had to be a capable and foreseeing person to keep her house well stocked with provisions (no simple task in those days). It was customary for noblemen to send their children to be brought up in another household, so the country gentleman's wife nearly always had the responsibility of some young folk. Added to this, her occupations included spinning and weaving and making the clothes for the family, for ready-made ones were unusual. Margaret Paston sends the following shopping list to her husband:

"I pray you that you will vouchsafe to do buy for me 1 lb. of almonds and 1 lb. of sugar, and that ye will do buy some frieze to make of your children's gowns. Ye shall have best cheap and best choice of Hay's wife as it is told me. And that ye will buy a yard of broadcloth of black for one hood for me of 44d. or 4 shillings a yard, for there is neither good cloth nor good frieze in this town. As for the children's gowns and I have them, I will do them maken."

Cooking was a fine art, and all sorts of spiced and

flavoured dishes were made. Our Venetian ambassador of 1500 wrote of Englishmen: "They take great pleasure in having a quantity of excellent (victuals) and also in remaining a long time at table, being very sparing of wine when they drink it at their own expense." Dinner, an elaborate affair (pl. 13), often lasted for hours. Numerous courses were brought in, sometimes to the accompaniment of music (pl. 10). The dogs came in for all the bones, which were flung on to the floor when the diners had finished. A great deal of meat, especially game and poultry, was eaten (pl. 3 (a), 18); pheasants, capons, veal and ham, roast peacocks carried on in a dish with their tails spread out; also much fresh and salted fish. As a rule, vegetables were not popular, though we read of Sir John Paston sending to his brother "two pots of oil for sallads, which oil was good as might be when I delivered it and shall be good at the receiving if it be not mishandled or miscarried." Tarts and pastries of all descriptions found a place on the menu, as well as sugared sweetmeats in fantastic shapes, and fruits fresh and dried. Bread was of many kinds, the favourite being the "manchet" loaf made of fine white flour. Wines (mostly imported), cider, beer and ale were the usual drinks. For table utensils there were only horn or pewter cups, wooden platters, spoons and knives (see pl. 3 (a)).[1]

[1] In the "books of courtesy," there are often instruction on behaviour at meals, which show that manners were far from irreproachable. The diner is instructed not to fill his spoon too full, nor smack his lips, nor gnaw his bones. He must keep his fingers clean and wipe his mouth before drinking.

Dress.—These pictures illustrate how the great people loved to dress in costly materials and furs (pl. 6 (b), 10, 13, 14). Ladies especially were inclined to dress in extreme fashions, their head dresses often being most fantastic (pl. 9, 10). Once the popular kind seems to have been cone-shaped with a fine veil hanging from it (pl. 6 (b), 84 (a)), but there were many others; one was like a great pair of horns draped with the usual veil (pl. 11). Dresses were cut to fit closely to the figure with low necks, high waists, and very full skirts (pl. 9, 11). Jewellery was much worn and sometimes the old cry of "nothing to wear" meant no jewellery. Margaret Paston's vanity was a little sore when Queen Margaret visited Norwich: "I pray you," she wrote to her husband, "that ye will do your cost on me against Whitsuntide, that I may have something for my neck. When the queen was here, I borrowed my cousin Elizabeth Clere's device, for I durst not for shame go with my beads amongst so many fresh gentlewomen as here were at that time."

Warfare on Land and Sea.—Warfare was very much part of the scheme of things in mediæval England, and especially on the borders of Scotland and Wales, where raids were frequent. It was during this century that foot soldiers became more important in an army than the armoured knights. The English national weapon was the long-bow, and an excellent one it was.

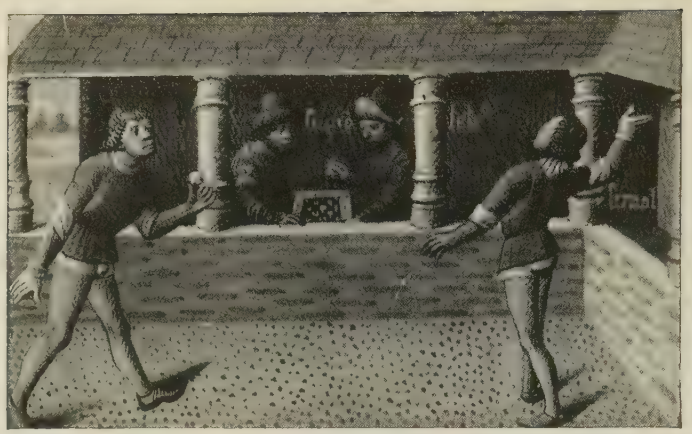
Look at the pictures of warfare in this book (pl. 86–95). They show what a fifteenth century army looked like in

(a) Cock Fighting. The Birds Were Fitted with Tiny Spurs.

(b) A Variety of Golf.

(c) Roasting Chestnuts—or Apples—by a Fire.

(d) A Shooting Alley with a Little Refreshment Booth.



(a) Playing Ball and a Board Game.

(b) Hawking Was the Most Popular Sport.

(c) Wrestling.

(d) More Golf.

(a) Beggars Stop a Traveller.

(b) Excited Hunt Followers.

Behind, malefactors' bodies rot upon wheel and gallows.

(a) Courtyard Scene.

The well in the wall could be reached from either side.

(b) Travellers Overtaken by Darkness.

battle and camp (pl. 86). A battle must indeed have been an imposing sight, with bright banners and plumes and pennons waving in the heart of the mêlée (pl. 95). Knightly armour came to be very perfect during this period. It is known as "plate-armour," because it consisted of over-lapping steel plates (instead of chain mail) covering the entire body. The knight wore a large helmet, iron shoes and gauntlets; his weapons were a sword, a battle-axe and a lance, and he carried a small shield. His horse often wore armours with a splendid plumed bridle. Foot soldiers (whether men-at-arms or archers) wore hard leather tunics, sometimes lined with steel plates and helmets.

Sea fights between the English and French were common, so certain vessels (provided mostly by the Cinque Ports)[1] guarded the coasts from enemy raids. When necessary, the king could commandeer merchant vessels for defence. There was really no definite line between trading- and warships, because all ships were armed against pirates and every sailor had to turn soldier in case of attack. Vessels of this period were made larger than previously with two or three masts and broader so as to hold cannon (see pictures of ships in pl. 70–73).

The Law and Punishments.—General lawlessness was a characteristic of the fifteenth century, the worst

[1] The Cinque Ports were: Hastings, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Sandwich. Until the reign of Henry VII they provided the Crown with nearly all the ships and men for coastal defence.

offenders being the nobles. This state of things was a direct result of the Hundred Years' War. Men had become used to fighting, and when Frenchmen were not available as opponents they turned on their own countrymen. The lack of a strong central authority made it more difficult to bring powerful criminals to justice. Great men defied the law courts and settled their arguments by force of arms. The records of the time are full of complaints of lawless deeds. It was not an unusual thing, for example, for a man to force his way on to another's estate to claim his rights. Once a nobleman besieged Margaret Paston in her house at Gresham and forcibly detained her while his men plundered it.

Even when a case did come into the law courts, one could not be certain of getting justice. Judges and jury were often corrupt, and allowed themselves to be bribed or bullied by the most powerful party in a trial. When Henry VII formed the Court of Star Chamber he took a great step towards improving this state of things. All the members of this court belonged to the king's household and were above bribery; the king himself was supreme judge and anyone might appeal to the Star Chamber and count on obtaining justice.

The usual form of trial was by jury, though anyone who had the right to a coat of arms was allowed trial by combat if he wished it.[1] A special Church Court existed

[1] Trial by combat was not very popular during this century. The accuser and accused faced each other in the lists or hired champions to fight

for the trial of priests or clerics in the minor orders. Criminals were often tortured to make them confess or to get information (pl. 17 (a)). If they were proved guilty, death by hanging or beheading was the punishment. On pl. 63 (a) a public execution is taking place; the crowd in the streets are just as keen to get a good view as we are to see the Lord Mayor's Show or a member of the Royal Family driving through the streets.

Medicine and Surgery.—The profession of law had become very popular and so had that of medicine. All monasteries and most large houses possessed a special herb garden and an inmate who knew something of simple cures. Doctors there were in plenty, many of them being "quacks," and a physician and an operating surgeon were two different persons, though each had to know something of the other's work. In mediæval times, many barbers practised surgery, but there were people who complained, as the citizens of London did to the Lord Mayor in 1415, that "certain barbers, inexperienced in the art of surgery, do oftentimes take under their care many sick and maimed persons, fraudulently obtaining possession of very many of their goods thereby . . . by reason whereof, they are oftentimes made to be worse off at their departure than at their coming."

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for them; the losing knight (or, if he were a hired champion, his patron) was declared guilty and handed over to the executioner. On pl. 16 (a) is a picture of a trial by combat; the "blackbird of guilt" is shown by the artist, hovering over the vizor of the guilty man.

Plagues were frequent, especially towards the end of the century when "sweating sickness" broke out in England for the first time. We ought to give the fifteenth century people great credit for their care of the aged and the sick. They had hospitals for all these, and special ones for leprosy. Monks and nuns looked after them, and they were visited and helped by the rich. A mediæval hospital (pl. 80) was generally a large airy hall with tiled floors, rows of clean white beds and an altar at one end. Insane people were at first taken to an ordinary hospital, but if they grew worse they were sent to Bedlam (Bethlehem) which was devoted entirely to the care of the insane. The "poor mad men of Bethlehem" were splendidly looked after and often restored to reason.

Travel.—In looking through the pictures in this book one gets a fairly good idea of how journeys were made in the fifteenth century (pl. 63–71). In some parts of the country travelling was quite a risky business, for there were thieves and cut-throats abroad, to say nothing of a man's private enemies. Yet members of the Paston family made the journey to London so often that they cannot have thought much of it. It is always more pleasant to travel in company and exchange news with other people, so travellers liked to go in parties whenever possible. Pilgrimages to St. Thomas' Shrine at Canterbury or Our Lady of Walsingham were a welcome opportunity for change of air and surroundings, and pilgrims, too, seem to have been respected even by lawless men.

Tilting Across a Barrier at a Tournament

They Hunted Everything, Anyhow, Anywhere, Any Time. Here a Very Mixed Pack Finishes Off a Wild Boar.

A Hunt Picnic; the Sword Being Hung on a Tree and Hounds Drinking From the Fountain.

(a) Good Dogs and Kindly Attendants.
Troubles of horses and dogs were well understood.

(b) Tending Vines.

About the year 1457 Agnes Paston when writing to her son John, in London, tells of two pilgrims, a man and a woman, who were attacked by coastal pillagers and the man was taken captive. When the thieves found that he was a pilgrim they gave him money and set him on land again.

Music.—A journey was often enlivened by music; in fact it was thought to have so much influence that doctors would even recommend it as a means of soothing the sick. Professional musicians (marvellous people, who could play countless instruments and compose all kinds of songs) wandered from place to place or hired themselves into the households of great men. A nobleman, being usually a man of leisure, heard two or three masses every day; he had his own household musicians and a choir of men and boys for the singing. Kings and princes were often good performers in this line themselves, for music was an important part of every noble youth's training. Until the Wars of the Roses England was one of the leading musical nations. Songs of love and gallant deeds were the most popular among the higher classes, the villagers and townsfolk had their ballads and singing games, and the monks their solemn chant. On p. 89 you will find the music of "The song of Agincourt," composed to celebrate the great victory of 1415. It is harmonized so that you can try it over on the piano. The tune is solemn and stately as befits such a great subject, and the song is really a kind of hymn of

praise. We must remember that in mediæval music the words of a song were just as important as the melody to which they were sung.

Plays and Players.—Undoubtedly the people of that time took great pleasure in the drama. All citizens paid something towards the upkeep of the acting company of their town, and each town had as a rule its own particular play. The chief play at Canterbury was naturally "The Martyrdom of St. Thomas." In the Chronicle of the Grey Friars of London for the year 1411, we read how a certain play called "From the Beginning of the World," acted in London lasted for seven whole days, and, says the chronicler, "there were the most part of the lords and gentles of England." Careful account was kept of the cost of these plays. Here are one or two items from the cost of "The Martyrdom of St. Thomas":—carts and wheels, a mitre, two leather bags containing blood to spout out at the murder, the hire of a sword, a painting of St. Thomas' head, an angel that cost 22 pence and flapped his wings and turned round on a hidden wench.

Besides the Lives of the Saints they acted scenes from Scripture, introducing comic parts wherever possible. The audience loved to hear Noah and his wife squabbling or the Shepherds on the night of the Nativity having a heated argument. There were no women actors; boys took the women's parts and the stage was a movable wooden platform, generally three storeys high. The

actors appeared on the middle one, the lower one was curtained off as a "green-room," while the top one represented Heaven.

These plays were sometimes quite costly affairs, and a great deal of trouble was taken over them. It was characteristic of mediæval people that what they did was done very thoroughly. Evidence of this is available for most of us to-day. We can go into many of the old churches in England and admire their wonderful tombs and effigies, notice the infinite amount of detail and imagine the time and trouble that must have been spent in thus creating a beautiful thing out of beautiful material. These same churches once had their big windows filled with stained glass and their walls painted and carved with Scriptural scenes to teach the people to realise their faith (pl. 45, 47 (b)). And the libraries of those times! Not just plain, ordinary books with one page looking exactly like another, but filled with careful writing, with illuminated capitals and coloured drawings, bound in rich covers of leather or velvet (pl. 1, 6, 11). Fifteenth century people indeed lived and moved among beautiful things.

Other Amusements.—Just as they worked thoroughly, so they amused themselves thoroughly. Most of all, the nobleman loved hunting. He loved his hunting dogs and horses and bred and trained them very carefully. The wild boar was common and gave plenty of sport (pl. 27) and so did the deer and the fox; wolves were by now al-

most extinct. A very popular sport (for ladies and men) was hawking. John Paston longed for a hawk, and wrote to his brother:—"I ask no more good of you for all the service that I shall do you while the world standeth, but a goss-hawk . . . now think on me, good lord, for if I have not a hawk I shall wax fat for default of labour. . . . God send you all your desires, and me my mewed goss-hawk in haste."

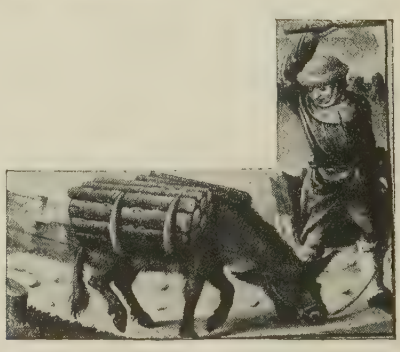
For the knight there was also the tournament (pl. 26), an occasion for much pomp and splendour and incidentally good training for battle and splendid physical exercise. Bull and bear-baiting were common, and schoolboys seem to have been especially fond of cock-fights (pl. 22 (a)). On holidays the country folk would assemble on the village green for games and morris dancing. They had wrestling bouts and shooting at the butts, running at the quintain, stilt-walking and all manner of ball games (pl. 22 (b), 23 (a), (d)). Football was popular, but as the apprentices took to playing it in the city streets it proved rather a nuisance. Apparently people sometimes overdid things in the matter of sport, for in 1409 there was a proclamation in London that no person should levy money for games called "fote-balle and cock-throwing—under pain of imprisonment or fine." In the long winter evenings there was no lack of amusement. Dicing became a passion among knights and merchants: there was the ever popular chess (which ladies enjoyed), besides draughts, backgammon, and, after the

(a) Gathering Wood.

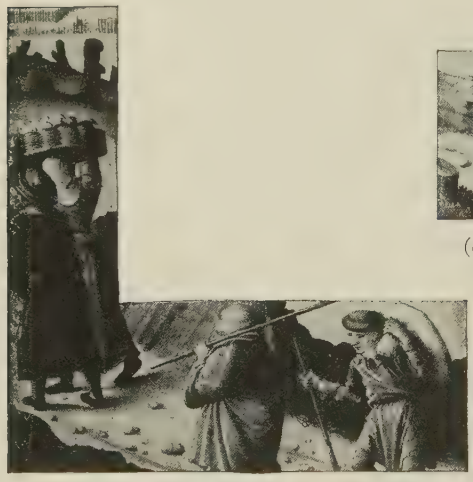
(c)

(b and c) Killing, Cutting up and Salting the Winter's Meat Supply.

(a) A Poor Fisherman.



(c) A Donkey with Firewood.



(b) Country Folk Going to Market.
Notice their comfortable clothing.

(d) A Friendly Scene Outside the Walls.

(a) A Heavy Ox Plough Shod with Thin Iron.

(b) A Sheep Farm on the Yorkshire Hills.

WINTER. THE ARTIST HAS IMAGINED AWAY THE LEFT WALL OF THE HOUSE TO SHOW PEOPLE BY THE FIRE.

banquet, dancing. Children could amuse themselves very much as they do nowadays in round games, such as "Hoodman Blind" (a mediæval form of "Blind man's buff"); and one of these pictures shows you how they enjoyed blowing soap bubbles (pl. 78 (a)). The children of rich parents had many toys: whipping tops (pl. 79 (b), (c)), dolls, toy windmills, and wooden knights on horseback to play at tilting.

Here, at the end of our brief survey of the fifteenth century, we have seen just enough to make us want more. And there is more than enough in contemporary records and letters to satisfy everyone's desire. The Middle Ages are like a flower; slow to open from the bud, brief and glorious in its blossoming, but with a beauty in its decline like that of the glowing woods in Autumn. So with the fifteenth century; a time of great magnificence and one in which we, its descendants, must find much to admire and enjoy.

A Foreigner's Opinion of the English People.—Perhaps it would be fitting here to read what our Venetian ambassador (previously quoted) had to say of the English people themselves:—"The English are for the most part, both men and women of all ages, handsome and well proportioned . . . great lovers of themselves and of everything belonging to them; they think that there are no other men than themselves, and no other world than England. . . . They all from time immemo-

rial wear very fine clothes, and are extremely polite in their language. . . . In addition to their civil speeches, they have the incredible courtesy of remaining with their heads uncovered with an admirable grace, whilst they talk to each other. They are gifted with good understandings, and are very quick at everything they apply their minds to. . . . I never have noticed any one, either at court or amongst the lower orders, to be in love; whence one must necessarily conclude either that the English are the most discreet lovers in the world, or that they are incapable of love."

I

Clothing

CLOTHING. (LAWS, FASHIONS, UNDERCLOTHES, GLOVES, SHOES, TOILET, SOAP, LAUNDRY).—The dress extravagance of this period was the subject of much legislation. In 1463, "because the Commons of this Realm do daily wear excessive and inordinate array to the great displeasure of God," no knight or his wife under Lords Estate might wear cloth of gold or fur of sable.

No man possessing less than £40 per annum nor woman, even if a widow was to wear pure white or grey minniver—nor gilt garnished girdle—nor kerchiefs costing more than 3s. 4d. for one and a quarter yards. Gowns and jackets must be long enough to cover the buttocks and pikes of shoes restricted to two foot lengths. No common labourer was to use cloths richer than 2s. a yard nor hosen more than 1s. 2d. a pair, nor must their women have girdles of silver or kerchiefs costing more than one shilling. This legislature seems to have been a challenge to show what good estate you owned, and incited people to display all their splendour.

UNDERCLOTHES.—Underclothes were very simple. The men wore soft shirts, the women chemises of various lengths and thickness. The men's hose (cloth cut-on-the-cross will stretch into a very close fit) were braced up tightly on to short over-shirts with ties or "points" of leather. These "points" were by law made of leather of deer, boars, etc., which were stronger—even so, as you see in the pictures it was wiser to slack off a few points before being strenuous. (pl. 57–59.)

The women's stockings were gartered just below the knee, usually with a buckled strap.

GLOVES.—In some cases of social etiquette bare hands were considered hostile, but otherwise the fashion changed much as it does to-day—peasants had leather gloves for all labour and field work to protect the hands. These were made at home, like all other clothing. Labourers worked in gloves in many trades—sometimes they figured on the wages sheet.

SHOES.—These were very curious; the pattern may best be understood by cutting out an isosceles triangle of base 8 inches to 12 inches and greatest length 20 inches to 36 inches. Place the heel against the centre base with the toe towards point and fold up B to C, making a heel 4 inches high and joining the two long sides over the instep. The toe may be curled up and a sole added later. This was a general pattern, but they varied in finish. Court shoes were often extraordinary affairs of rich soft leather, with toes so long, that the curled up points had

A Raid on a Manor.

Robbers drive off cattle, fire thatch, plunder, murder and take prisoners. One old woman goes for them with her distaff.

Early Haymaking; Notice Vines and Outside Staircase of the Castle

(By Jean Fouquet)

SPRING OUTSIDE THE CASTLE.

Sowing corn and covering in by drag.
The field behind bristles with bird scares.

(a) Beating Pans to Distract Bees; Wax Melting and Honey Refining.

(b) Burning at the Stake. Note the Hanging Gallows in the Background.

to be fastened to the knee with tiny chains. It was utterly impossible to walk upstairs in such shoes! You stepped out and a page carried them up behind you. The ladies, on account of their long skirts, never wore such extremely long points—but all classes wore wooden clogs and pattens when walking over mud (pl. 53) and there were riding shoes, dancing shoes, and comfortable slippers for use as required. Shoes were usually made to fit and tried on like the dresses, though some were ready made, and some were altered and mended. The peasant still bound his feet with leather over warm straw padding—or went barefoot, specially in wet countries like Ireland and Scotland.

Toilet.—The face, hands and neck were washed on rising, and the hands carefully washed and nails trimmed before and after meals. Baths were pleasant steaming affairs of herb-scented water, in large wooden tubs before the fire (pl. 85 (b)) or in a summer garden, and for the young and hardy there were always rivers and streams for bathing. Teeth were washed with myrrh, vinegar and honey washes, and rubbed with wooden toothpicks. Toilet soap was home-made soft stuff from a wooden bowl. The men shaved and the women invented all sorts of dainty beauty lotions and creams. Some knights trimmed their hair close over neck and ears, but left a thick bushy top-knot to pad their helmet lids (pl. 13). If the ladies' eyebrows were too thick the hair was pulled out, and the same thing happened if the hair grew too low on the neck or forehead.

Soap.—Soap was made from animal fat, plant ash and soda. Each community boiled its own soap as needed for cleaning, laundry, or dressing wool—though where local conditions made the materials plentiful it was sometimes bought and sold. The scouring soap (called black soap) had sand in it and was dark and cheap—the fine toilet soaps would be made up in the still room of the castle or manor from lye of plant ash and be sweet-scented with beautifying herbs.

Laundry.—Clothes were washed by workers in each household—fuller's earth and white clay soils were used as well as soap. The delicate white veils of lace must have needed careful work, and were probably stiffened with preparations of milk, glue, size, or flour starch. The household linen would require much cleaning, but laundry work for clothing was not so important.

II

Household Life

Household Life. (The Household Arrangements, Servants, Table Manners, Fireplaces, Bread, Pastry, Cheese, Butter, Recipes, Gardens, Bees).—The condition varied between the small farmsteads where owners and their relations did the work themselves and large feudal strongholds where the whole establishment was organised into an intricate social community. In this the upper servants living with the household might themselves be sons of lesser lords and nobles, and far removed from the poorer peasant folk, who gave goods and service in return for their little lands and protection. These unkempt hirelings swarmed around every large mediæval household, and to-day it is difficult to find an analogy for their helpless dependent position; their payment was their protection by their overlord, and their right to live on his land. By all accounts their assets were practically nil, so that during a famine period they might have been wiped out completely, yet some survived; and perhaps account for the enormous amount of food material consumed in the kitchen of a feudal household.

This subsidizing of dependents explains the hold a kindly landlord could obtain over his people, and the evil and misery a cruel owner or stern steward could inflict over an entire "village."

The following notes are compiled from a contemporary Household Book.

SERVANTS.—Their number and duties varied with the means and methods of their household. Imagine a large hotel, a small school, several home farms, an employment agency, a famine bureau, a cottage hospital, a court of justice, a prison and a church and small village all combined under one management, and that usually upon a military basis, and you will appreciate what a mediæval estate was like, and what the *Chief Steward* had to cope with! He had to superintend the servants, see that "their livery be clean, neat and comely worn, and that their shoes be good also." He is to "keep account of the alms, that it be not wasted on tips to boys and knaves about the Hall, or spent on supper dainties for grooms." He is to "make his household dine together in the Hall, sitting together in fellowship."

The Clerk.—Often a monk, who kept the accounts and rolls and records. His underlings weighed, checked, counted and overlooked the rent payment of goods and work. The accounts were mostly in Latin and wonderfully well kept.

The Marshal had to present guests, messengers or im-

(a) A Wind Organ.

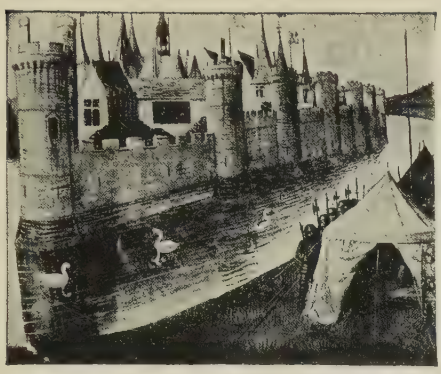
(b) Making Chain Armour to Music.

(c) Shepherds in the Limestone District of Yorkshire.
Notice the circular stone hut with heather thatch.

(a) A Hermit's Hut.

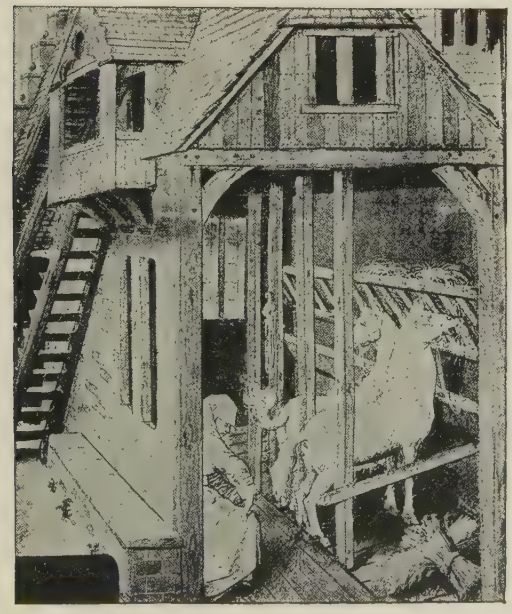
Study the building and notice the belfry and his little hand bell and book.

(b) Country Scene; Hurdle Makers.



(a) Swans on the Castle Moat.

(b) The Frontispiece to a Lesson on Natural History, Showing Stork, Heron, Buzzard, Raven, Magpie, Wren, Hen, Cocks, Oriole, Swan, etc.



(c) A Stable Showing Timber Building.

(a) Dye Works.

(b) Rope Making, Using a Spinning Wheel to Give the Required Twist.

portant matters to the lord, and submit his orders to the other servants.

The Usher of the House had charge of the main household affairs; he had under his charge the *Groom of the Hall*, who saw to the cleaning of the Hall; cleared it of loiterers as required. His *Pages of the Hall* would put up and remove the tables, issue straw for the sleepers at night, arrange for the changing and clearing of the rushes on the floor, fetch fresh boughs to fill the torch rings in summer, and stop dog fights at meal times.

The Groom of the Fires attended to fuel supplies, torches and flambeaux. His *Pages of the Fires and Lights* would carry torches, light bedroom fires, give out candles to squires (and extra good ones for the clerk and doctor!).

The Groom of the Door attended to all comers at the gate who came out and in, had horses ready for a sudden call, kept off vagrants, but let in clever mountebanks or story-tellers who could perform at meal times and amuse guests.

His Pages of the Door had a busy time running messages, fetching alms from the clerk for this beggar, or payment for some unexpected purchase made at the door, or perhaps helping in some sick villager for whom the kind lady of the house was going to "do something." *The Groom of the Stable* was important, also the *Groom of Water*, and many others.

In the Huntsman's instructions comes the friendly note—

One bone for each hound
So much shall he have every day.

The Butler has great responsibilities! Here are extracts from his instructions: "Have three sharp knifes, one to cut the bread, one to square it and one to trim it into 'trenchers.' Have a salt planer of ivorie two inches broad and three inches long, and see your salt be white and fine and do not let the lid of your salt cellar touch the salt." "Let all the table cloths" (and there were yards and yards of them—three deep all over those long tables!) "be fair folded and kept in a chest or hanged up on a perch. Look that your knifes be bright polished and your spoons clean." Most awe-inspiring are his wine cellar directions—we dare only give the simplest: "When you brooch a pipe of wine put in the tap upward four fingers above the bottom of the cask—so shall leys and dregs of the wine not arise and pour out."

The Butler, then, must see that his sideboard is well arrayed—that his silver and pewter plate shines well, and that the pages, who have charge of the wash hand bowls, serve the guest well and cleanly. These pages must have one clean towel over the shoulder, one clean for each guest, and one to wipe out the basin—and "let him see the ewer water be fresh and sweetly scented with mint or fragrant leaves." *How to lay the cloths:* "Wipe the table and cover it with one cloth all over—then take a second cloth and lay it along the front side of the table,

so that two-third of its width hang down to the floor—then the third cloth down the other side and then the fourth cloth over all down the middle, and when guests would wash after the meal run a long towel cloth down the edge of the table also" (pl. 7 (b)).

When setting table "take a towel around your neck over the left arm and holding the end in your left hand fill the sling of the napkin full of rolls and trencher bread —take the salt cellar in your left hand and in your right another towel." "So lay salt, knives, spoons, bread, etc., and cover them up with *more* napkins." And if you like to "wrap up your Lord's bread in a stately way" you can use two and a half yards of linen and fold an elaborate masterpiece nearly two feet high!

The Grooms of the Chamber had charge of bedrooms; they had to make the twisted straw pallets for the beds, see that the feather beds and wool overlays were well made; to take charge of the women who supplied and mended the blankets, sheets, pillows and rich coverlets. These grooms had to bring in baths and washing water; meals served in bed; and as soon as the lord had risen and gone to Mass they had to rush in and turn the bedroom into a day sitting-room, remaking the bed, hanging curtains and valances, laying counterpanes and cushions, floor tapestries and chair covers as required.

The Groom of the Wardrobe was valet to the lord. He brushed his clothes, helped him to dress in the morning, and his last duty at night was to tuck him into bed, give

him a drink, set the night-light in a basin of water and turn out the dog or cat.

Table Manners.—"When come to a feast, greet the Steward who shows you where to sit—you will find bread laid for you and perhaps a platter also—for soft food. There will be drinking cups upon the board and a salt cellar, but bring your own knife and spoon, the best you can afford. When the food is brought around you will be served on to your trencher of bread or platter. Eat quietly, and, as you share plates and cups do not leave your spoon in the food—or drink with your mouth full—lest you soil the cup. Don't stroke the dog or cat under the table, but keep your hands clean. Don't blow upon hot food—but talk awhile pleasantly to your waiting friends while it cools. Don't put your elbows on the table or turn your back on your neighbour—do not inconvenience your hoste by calling for unserved dishes. Be sedate and courteous if you sit among gentlefolk—and tell no tale that would harm or shame any other guest that so the feast may be pleasant to all." From *Boke of Curtasye.*

Fireplaces.—The hearths were for burning wood or plain flat stones under a wide chimney. The white ashes accumulated for months and years—so that the fire was never out—but smouldered always day and night; and fresh wood from the pile drying in the chimney corner was thrown upon them when a blaze was wanted. Bedroom fires were kept small and well made (pl. 81), and bath

(a) Quarry Works.

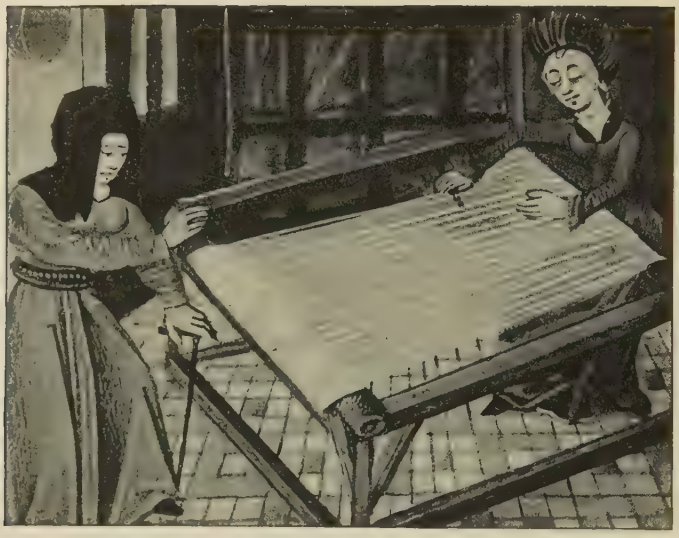
(b) Working with Bright Wools at a Curious Upright Carpet or Tapestry Frame.

GLASS BLOWING.

The top man fetches sand.

(a) A Boat Yard.

(b) Spinsters, in the Original Sense of the Word.



(a) Weaving at a Simple Loom.

(b) Baking Bread Rolls in a Brick Oven.

water when wanted was heated in cauldrons in the kitchen.

Various iron fixtures were used to hold up the wood, specially in the kitchen, where wonderful iron grids and stands and hooks were arranged over the huge cooking fires (pl. 18). In front of the blaze were long bars or spits for roasting meat and under these iron troughs to catch the dripping fat. These spits were turned slowly round while the meat upon them roasted, by a worker sitting at the side of the fire place, and to prevent this worker also being roasted he would fix up a fire screen (perhaps a wet old straw target) and have long handled ladles and spoons to reach along the dripping pans and baste the meat. Above the fire hung huge water cauldrons (these old cauldrons were a handy shape and size to measure out grain) and all the saucepans and pots had little strong legs to stand steadily over the soft embers. Sometimes ledges and shelves for slow drying and smoking were built into the open chimneys; but *Ovens* were built separately of brick and plaster.

Bread.—Every household made bread as required, the flour was stone ground at the mills. Wheat flour was used for the best white bread for the nobles and barley, rye (pl. 44 (b)), made dark bread for the peasants. The dough was shaped according to use as rolls, loaves or trencher bread (trenchers being special loaves of thick bread cut for use as plates). The bread was baked in brick ovens or flat on the hot hearthstone. These flat

rods or bannocks are made in some country places to-day—the two outsides are rather hard—but the inside is soft; and split in half, they make two good plates, used crust down—you don't lose any of the gravy that way.

PASTRY—(pl. 3 (a)).—Pastry was chiefly the moulded variety made with boiling fat and flour—like pork-pies. The stiff outer-cases were called "coffins" and the pies were soft and "running" while hot, and stiff when cold.

> All those pies that be goode and hote
> Open them at the top of their coffin cote (pigeon cote)
> All that be cold and stiff within their crust
> Always at the middle open them you must.

If you take a modern pork pie crust and fill it tight with venison, pigeons or fried chicken and pour in a lot of highly spiced gravy, raw sour apple juice or peppered custard you will have a very mediæval pastry, specially if you put the birds feet and some of the spice leaves sticking out of a hole at the top to show what's inside.

CHEESE.—There were four sorts, green, soft, hard, and spermyse. Green cheese was new, soft, cold and moist (a milk cheese?). Soft cheese was hard, hot, dry and evil to digest.

Spermyse cheese was a savory affair flavoured with herb juices. "And there be divers kinds of cheese made in Essex, Suffolk, Banbury, etc., and they vary in goodness according to place, feeding of cattle and clenliness of their daries."

BUTTER.—There was a dairy attached to all large

houses or communities. The cream was skimmed from large shallow wooden bowls and the butter made in a plunge churn, i.e., a deep narrow tub inside which a loosely fitted disk of leather or wood was made to "plunge" up and down at the end of a long handle (this churn is sometimes used to-day and there are pictures of it in the earlier centuries). The butter was made up and stamped with wooden patterns and the maker's name, or sometimes sold melted down into casks, and for winter use heavily salted.

Poultry.—"The new lyde egges be better than the olde, and henne eggs better than any other eggs; when they be fresh and specially when they be scarce; eggs hard rosted be grose metes."

Bacon and Ham.—Meat was cured in various ways, by salting, drying or rubbing with mixtures of honey, vinegar, salt and spices. The pieces were afterwards hung up by the smoke hole or in the chimney till dried and smoked, and this would help to preserve them from flies and give them a distinctive pleasant flavour according to the fuel used.

Pork and mutton were both treated thus. This salt meat was staple winter diet, boiled with grain, or slowly roasted. The joints would be leaner than our modern ham or bacon but otherwise very much the same.

Recipes.—Notice the alteration of spices. Pepper is used for sweet dishes; crabapple juice and sweet jellies are served with meat courses.

A variety of Sausage Roll.—"Take breadcrumbs and eggs and swing them together with ham; add sage, saffron and salt; wrap it up in a cloth and cast into boiling broth."

Fruttures.—"Put figs into a batture of floure, ale, peper, safron, and spices"; afterwards "cast upon an oiled pan." Serve with vinegar and honey (evidently a pancake mixture). Harl MS. 279.

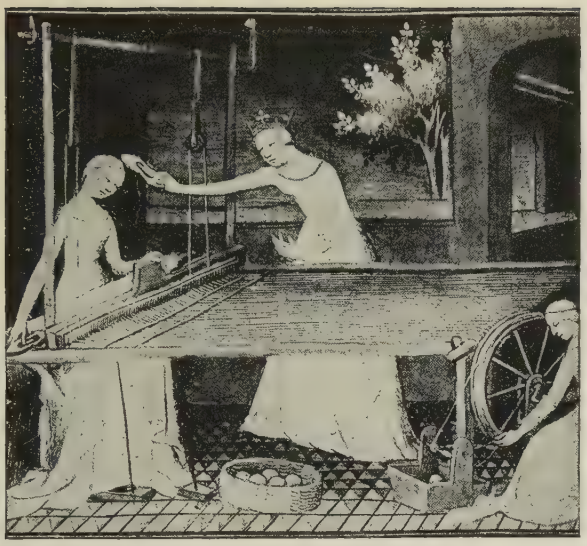
Gardens (pl. 20, 21).—They had good soil, and lots of time. Women folk enjoyed their pleasure gardens, where grew the herbs they used for medicines. In peace time the castle grounds would be gay with growing plants and the rooms sweet with fresh cut boughs and scented green floor rushes, and many of our wild flowers grew in their gardens;—lilies of the valley, water lilies, mercury springe, bilberries, blackberries, onion, kail, lettuce, nettles, dandelions, daffodils, saffron, blackthorn, white may. Grapes were grown in the South of England but English wine was scant and sour.

Bees.—"Of bees is lyttel charge and good attendance. When they swarm in June or July, spread a clean sheet under them and on it a stool and hive, and make sweet the new hive with honey or good cream and then shake the little people into it—with their queen—and tie the sheet up over all, leaving a gap through which they may pass freely. For never strive nor fight with bees! And at night when all is quiet take them from the sheet and stand them where they are to live, and clay around the

STONE CARVER AT WORK ON THE OUTSIDE OF A CHURCH.

(a) Two Forms of Carding.

(b) A Distaff and Spindle.



(a) A Loom and Worker. Note the Treadle Lifts on the Loom and Tightening Comb.

(b) A Lady Fresco Painting.

An Attacking Army Mending and Barricading a Bridge.
Notice the siege tower, and the workers in the foreground.

(a)

(b)

(a) Stone Masons at Work. (b) The Master Builder, or Perhaps the Rich Owner, with Workmen.

BUILDING, FOR A LADY PATRON.

Notice the mason's lodge and the temporary thatch upon the unfinished walls.

edges of the hive, where it rests on the stand to keep out wet and wind—only except their little door and put a straw thatch over them and see they be two feet from the ground, that mouse may not harm them nor beastes nor swine. And if a hive be new swarmed too late to feed itself put in honey for them on a little dinner board and then stop their door (save for two or three one bee holes) that stranger bees come not in and war with them." Honey was still the chief sweetness, favourite salve and indispensable medicine.

Pieces of Furniture.—Few in number, good in design and huge in size, formed of thick slabs of wood, well proportioned and simply carved. The Gothic bosses and carved ornaments, with scured or "strickled" mouldings, belong to the early part of the century; later the cutting becomes more restrained; a good example is the linen fold carving (pl. 12); this *may* have been painted white. The mediæval people loved linen drapery. Much of the wood carving was painted and gilt, which fitted well with the colour scheme of light washed walls and matt honey-coloured woods (remember it was not old *dark* oak when new), and there is nothing gloomy in light bright wood.

Iron work was often elaborate and many lanthorns and flambeaux, weather cocks, and railings, remain to-day; also locks, handles, fasteners, candlesticks and small ware, and there were now elaborate iron hinges instead of the wooden socket-hinges of earlier centuries.

The *chest* or *coffer* was used to store in, pack in and

sit upon. In this century they have four square section legs, though some still continue the two end sides downwards as legs in bench form; later, end pieces connected by a cross bar are added to form a back rest when the coffer is in use as a bench. There are also coffers with permanently raised backs, formed by the extending of one of the long sides, and when this back has added arms at each end the coffers have developed into settees or benches, with seats that lift up like the lid of the old coffer (pl. 64 (a)).

CUPBOARDS stood high on long legs—and were used to keep bread and cheese, or sweetmeat, refreshments to which you helped yourself between the two ceremonious meals of the day.

When these cupboards are used for storing game, meat, or live hawks they have air holes pierced through their carved ornament. The sideboard (pl. 1) is a development of the cupboard and used to display silver plate and to serve from during meal times. Tables were often trestle boards, but in the chief table the supports were now fixed, one strong leg at each end of the long boards, and the feet of these legs spread out sideways to form a firm stand; they were frequently joined by a stretcher or cross bar near the floor. This low bar is noticeable in all early furniture, chair legs, tables, stools, etc., and may have been a result of the rush strewn floor; such furniture would lie across the rushes, holding them flat, while single pointed legs or feet would pierce through to the floor

below and stir up the rushes into rampant triangular tufts at each movement. (You can try this principle on any straw stack or barn.)

Benches, stools and a few heavy chairs complete the main furniture. There would be a daïs canopy and draught screens around the lord's table; also a hat stand, coat pegs, hawk perches and harp stand and perhaps a writing desk for the clerk, and we complete the downstairs list.

Upstairs were beds, chairs, and coffers; wash tubs were carried about as wanted; toilet necessities were kept in chests or coffers; wardrobes were built against walls, and chimney pieces sloped back to the walls above. The beds were large and elaborately upholstered and canopied, and remade as couches by day (pl. 84 (c)). Window frames may be considered as furniture since they were frequently double-shuttered affairs fitted into the stone casements of the more private rooms (pl. 78 (a)).

Lights.—Torches were made of wood resin and tallow. Flambeaux or iron holders for flaming wood hung against the stone walls where there was a sufficient draught. Candles were made of mutton fat and bees-wax with flax, or rarely, cotton wicks brought from Sicily. The variety and price varied with the price of mutton. Tallow dips, coarser unmoulded candles (rush lights) like tapers of part-peeled rushes dipped in fat and night lights.

III

Amusements

AMUSEMENTS. (MUSIC, BOOKS, STAGE, HAWKING, HUNTING, TOURNAMENTS, ARCHERY, QUARTER STAFF, PETS).—A great deal of music, including long song stories and part songs. The monks taught singing as the easiest way of learning by heart, and it was much more a common rural joy for the poorer folk. Of instruments they had trumpets and horns and bagpipes, wind organs (thunderous and wonderful! forty men to the bellows and two men playing), lutes, harps, flutes, trombones, drums and hurdygurdies—a sort of "friction against the strings organ," and even mechanical music boxes. *Bells* were wonderfully developed; there were large ones for churches, monasteries, convents and castles; bells to call to prayer, clang an alarm, sound the hours of work over the harvest fields; hand bells for country music, little bells for dancers, hermits, lepers, horses and sheep—the older *wrought* and folded bells were still used, but the best were now cast, or founded, in dry earth moulds, and mounted free for pealing.

BOOKS.—The making of books might be considered

MENDING CASTLE WALLS.

Under the wicker scaffolding the mortar dust floats upon the stagnant moat.

BUILDING THE TIMBER FRAMEWORK OF A HOUSE.

The carpenter did good work, and you will find nails for the roof, laths in a box hung over the ridge pole, planes, saws, squares, mallets, spring saws, etc.

THE PULLEYS ARE NOW WORKED FROM THE GROUND, AND IN THIS PICTURE AN ARTIST HAS SHOWN A PACK HORSE BRINGING READY CUT STONE.

(a) A Comfortable Little Room in the City.

The man drinks mulled wine by the fire.

(b) A Metalworker's Shop.

Notice that the customer, who has come on foot, wears clogs.

as an industry, for the trade was important. A volume could cost as much as a ship, a bed, or the rent of a large estate for a year. But the joy and delight of books was an important educational factor during the century. Though printing was invented in 1436, it did not come into general use till later, but the written and illuminated books reached their greatest beauty during this century. The work was chiefly done by monks; but every rich person rejoiced in at least one beautiful little book of prayers made by a manuscript artist, while some had glorious volumes of romance or wonderfully illustrated histories—all rich with colour and glowing with gold. Doctors and students had books for study "well and truly written," by themselves, and all the new wonders from the sea adventurers were written down in books. Comfortable desks were made for writers (pl. 2 (a), (b)), and in large communities they had large rooms, kept and arranged specially for their work. The writing was done on vellum or parchment (sheepskin). The ink was made variously—one recipe was the sediment left after boiling blackthorn bark. Quill pens were used and coloured pictures and ornamental borders put in by special artists. Sometimes if the artist made a very successful initial letter, he would cut a wood block or shape of it and keep it to use again as a stamp—and some think this helped to lead to printing. The colours were made from plants and gums and various dyes, and there was much rivalry between various craftsmen. In one record a

monk recommends his brother to soak long narrow strips of linen cloth in his dyes and use pieces of them as required to colour his paint water. To preserve these ribbands from damp the brother is to take them to bed with him at night—a pleasant idea! How the rotund maypole must have cheered up the dormitory! The volumes were sewn on to leather thongs with linen thread and bound in strong leather-covered boards firmly clasped. Frequently the smaller books had the leather covers continued to form a wallet or pack in which the book could swing safely from the belt (pl. 6 (b) shows such a wrapping). This long cover was known as a "chemise." The block books which developed towards the end of the century were printed from wood blocks on to paper, and earlier still queer prints (or rubbings) had been taken from engraved metal pictures. Remember Caxton and his printing works at Westminster, but all the art of printing belongs to the next century's notes.

STAGE.—Still played mostly in church though in towns the guilds and unions would each undertake a play and often the loaded carts would proceed round around the town acting at each stopping place. The expenses were borne by the people, and were considered repaid by the trade caused, and the city advertisements it gave. Plays were also used for raising money for city purposes and public charity. The Church miracle plays were often boldly realistic. One reads of a scene in which Christ rises from the Mount into a cloud of wool, and upwards

to a Heaven so admirably constructed as to be really marvellous!

Another Heaven had a windlass and ten wheels hung with lanthorns and angels tied on strong ropes with a counterpoise of lead under their feet. There were also "Cherubim standing in wool who recited whatever was set down for them to say." This Paradise, we are told, "was very beautiful and was tied to the rood loft of the church by long ropes." There were also saints, in procession, many who appeared to be transfixed by swords or spears, "which EVERYBODY knows is done by breaking the spear or sword and fastening it either side the victim's body with an iron ring."

The properties and clothes were kept and often hired out between village and village, and there was always music and dancing between scenes, while the continued play, lasting several days, was popular. A week's market feast, with a procession and play every evening cheered up a wet winter or rounded off a successful harvest very pleasantly.

HAWKING.—A most popular and fashionable sport. Hawks were trained to swoop upon game, kill it, and return to their owners. The beautiful clever birds were much valued; they were worn on the left wrist, slept on perches in their owner's rooms and had special attendants, little hoods, bells, tassels, and required more fuss and attention than a modern lap dog. The gosshawk was the most valued. Falcons were so prized that anyone

taking their eggs might be sentenced to a year's imprisonment.

HUNTING.—The hunt was a common amusement; almost anything was hunted, anyhow and at all times, and frequently with a very mixed field. The hounds especially seem a queer collection. Game was stringently preserved, but hawking and tournaments were more social sports.

TOURNAMENTS (pl. 26).—Tournaments were sports used as battle practice. The courses were scored on points, and the etiquette was most exacting; later tilting became a highly technical trial of skill rather than strength. A large tourney would last several days; there were hundreds of spectators and wooden stands for the guests, and great feasts were held afterwards. Altogether it was an important social event.

ARCHERY.—The long bow was the English pride, but cross-bows were being used specially for sport.

QUARTER-STAFF.—This weapon was in use for centuries, less as a military weapon than for general defence. The heavy ash staves (approximately their owner's own height) were whirled around with such methodical force and skill, that in practised hands a quarter-staff formed an impenetrable defence and formidable attack.

PETS (pl. 28 (a)).—Horses, hawks, dogs, singing birds, and monkeys. Horses were most important, and were used for travel, sport and warfare. Sometimes they were trained to beg, fight with their forefeet, and per-

(a) Busy Sellers of Shoes and Table Vessels.
Notice the cupboard at the back.

(b) Another Shop where they Bargain and Keep Accounts.

(a) A Gambling Den.

(b) A City Scene, with Stalls Around a Gate House.

A Street Scene with Merchants and Lords on Horses.

(a) A Troubled Workman with his Tally Sticks Seeks Justice.

(b) A Gathering of Various Trades Representatives.

A Market Scene with Townsfolk Shopping.

A Gay Party with Music, Leaving a Church.

form many clever tricks. Dogs were for sport; and there were also tiny lap dogs (pl. 6 (b)). Monkeys were expensive imported pets. It is hard to understand the people's enjoyment of bear-baiting and cock-fighting (pl. 22 (a)).

IV

Agriculture

AGRICULTURE (LAND, PLOUGHING, SOWING, WOODS, HEDGES, FARM IMPLEMENTS, HAY, WEEDS, SACKS, FARMING, STOCK, HORSES, OXEN, COWS, SHEEP, GOATS, PIGS, POULTRY, HERDING).—Though England was an agricultural country, the working of the land was poor. There was no rotation of crops, no chemical manure. Stable manure was so important that sheep and cows were hired to graze on land to fertilize it. Flocks foraging on common lands all day were put on farm lands all night, and not sent away till late in the morning—"after the dew be clean gone away." One careful shepherd tells how he set up scratching stakes on the bare places he had marked in the fields to encourage his sheep to gather there and fertilize them for the following year. The pigeon guano from the manor loft was nearly as valuable as the pigeons (pl. 32). And household dung or the dirt and refuse from a fair or market was considered worth paying for.

The use of lime was appreciated but not understood. The ploughing was shallow and inefficient and drainage was a great difficulty (*see* under "Weeds"). The silt from

the waterways was dredged up on to adjacent lands, or in some places streams were diverted to flow over fields to enrich the meadow grass. The entire lack of winter root crops and scanty hay for feeding is the basis of the mediæval calendar.

Ploughing.—Ploughing was done at all times of the year—instructions are given to plough up leas (grass lands) early in the spring so that the grass and moss might rot. Next plough fields for peas and beans. Stiff lands should be done first, that they may catch the frost and rains and winds of March.

Sowing.—When sowing, "Have thy hoffer slung about thy neck full of thy seeds—and keep swinging time; when as thou walkest thy left foot be up, let thy right hand cast abroad—and when thy right foot be up then fling from thy left hand . . . or if thinner sowing be required, set one handful between thy footfalls only." Sometimes in spring sowing a child was sent ahead of the plough to scatter the grain, which was then "cut in." But, says a contemporary: "methinks the child must show much discretion."

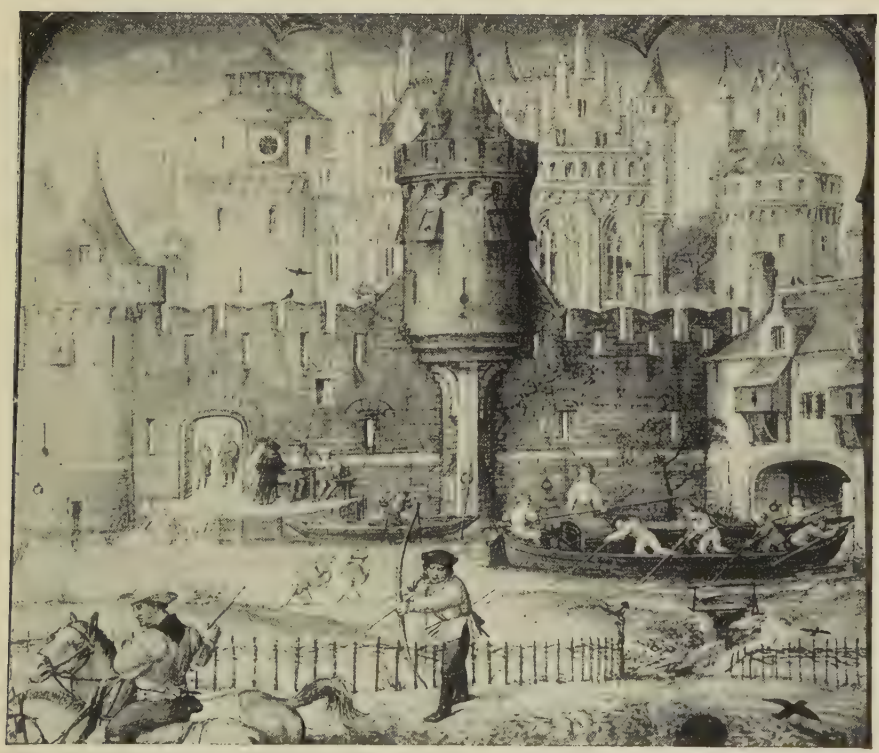
Peas and beans were sown singly by hand labour. Wheat was grown only for very special white bread. The prices of six pounds of wheat averaged one penny. And one farmer's wife of the period made a little note that she would give her husband "furmenty" pudding for a treat when the new fresh wheat came in on the following Saturday.

Oats were grown for porridge and for special horses. Rye drage and beans were all used, and barley was used for cooking with the salt meat broths, and for brewing mead. Hemp was sown for ropes and some linen and flax.

Woods (pl. 29 (a)).—There was still a supply of common woodland, except in those districts where metal smelting, boat- and house-building, etc., had cleared the local supply. Wood was common fuel and used for making implements, tools and machines of all kinds—buildings and furniture. Willows and bushes made wattle fencing, baskets, creels, etc.; and all common food utensils were "Treen."

Hedges.—For the larger tracts they could use imaginary divisions drawn between two points of the landscape —or for certain distances around a specially set up cross or shepherd's salting stone, but where walls were built they were of unmortared stone, heavily and skilfully constructed, so that many now remain, dividing our wilder moorlands. The hedges were quickset, of whitethorn, crabapple, holly, hazel or gorse. Blackthorn was condemned as tearing the sheep's wool—(though its powdery black bark was used for ink making). In the corners of the field it was customary to plant a few fruit trees—mostly crab apples and damsons.

Farm Implements.—Crude wooden ploughs (pl. 31 (a)) shod with thin iron, harrow frames (weighted and set with brushwood to spread the broken earth or scatter



A Quay Outside the City Walls.

Note the covered bridge, the barges towed or punted down the waterway, and the traders on the bench.

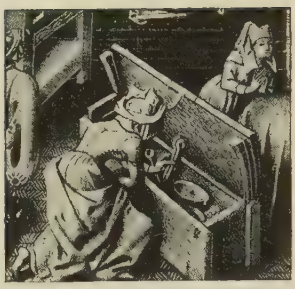
A Typical Walled City.

The picture shows a complicated story of religious processions, kings' treaties, and prisoners' pardons; but study the defensive walls, regular streets, dwelling houses and the farm houses, of timber and plaster, *outside* the city walls.

(a)

(b)

(a) Beheading by the Long Sword. (b) Wheelbarrows, Carts, Waggons. Every kind of box, bundle, crate, bale, barrel and basket.

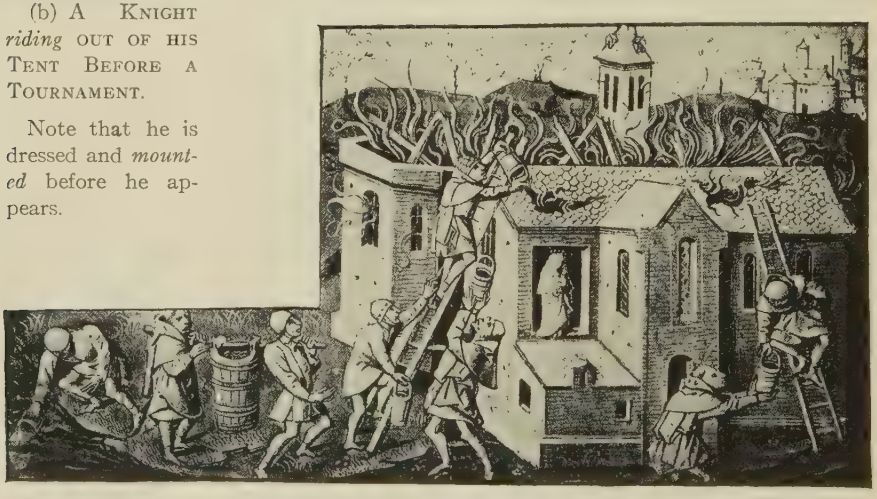


(a) A Mediæval Chest.

The open lid is upheld by the lid of the smaller end box fixed inside.

(b) A Knight *riding* out of his Tent Before a Tournament.

Note that he is dressed and *mounted* before he appears.



(c) A Fire; All Hands to the Water Buckets.

dropped manure or mole hills. Heavy four-wheeled carts (pl. 63 (b))—sometimes with spiked iron rims—barrows, hand barrows, earth mallets for breaking up clods; dibbles for planting peas and beans; scythes, rakes, pitchforks, and flails for threshing corn. The tools were well and carefully made—rakes of ash wood with oak teeth; little hoggins (barrels to hold harvest drinks), dishes, leather bottles and jugs; harness for the animals and shoes and clogs and gloves for the whole household. The farmer is advised to keep seasoned wood drying by his open hearth, so that in the winter he can make his own tools by fire and rushlight.

Hay (pl. 34).—The foreign grasses that make our present hay so rich were unknown, the only good meadows being the fields by a river. These were often arranged for flooding during the winter, so that the silt deposit made the crop rich. Hay was so valuable owing to the entire lack of winter root crops, that corn was sometimes cut high up by hand-sickles, and the short grass and straw cut together as hay crop. Also labourer's rents come "To carry straw from the threshing barn to the hay-rick. . . ."

Weeds.—Weeds from the common land were a great trouble, and the lack of clearing winter crops would add to this. The worst weeds were thistles, kedlocks, clocks, cockledrake, marigolds, chicory, fennel, and speargrass, while moss and pennywort on damp lands show the elementary state of land drainage.

Sacks, etc.—The average size took about three yards

of stuff, and the price, one shilling, was dear, as the material had to be firmly woven.

Farm Stock.—Cross breeding of stock was not understood—unless by the Cistercians, who wonderfully improved the quality of English wool. Owing to lack of winter crops, all surplus animals were killed off and salted down for winter meat by November.

Horses.—Horses were not considered as good as oxen for farm work—they were quicker but not so strong—and a horse when old was useless, but an ox was "beef meat and good as ever." (pl. 35.) The type varies, but a rather thickset, small white bay, or sorrel horse was most common. For travelling and pack work the trained gait was important, and fixed the horse's value. Nags, for pack work, slow, but sure, £3; *comfortable* riding horses—amblers, £5; Deambulans, canter-trained horses, £8; a trained war horse, £11 or more—and then I don't suppose his master would sell him.

Oxen (pl. 31 (a)) were better than horses for the blunt heavy ploughs—especially on heavy soils; they were shod like horses and used for all ordinary draught purposes about the farms. An ox carcase was worth about 10s. and his hide if good about half that.

Cows.—Cattle were less profitable than sheep, but much kept, for the housekeeping books are lavish in their use of milk, butter and cheese, and the value of them was about twice that of meat. Cows were expected to graze upon the rough common lands—so that farmers

buying new cattle were recommended to buy beasts from poorer lands, as they will have learnt to graze well and "Grow fat upon thine better lands."

Here is a description of a good mediæval cow: "Let a cow be beetle-browed and sterne of look—her head and neck big—her ears large and hairy—and every part of her even her very foote be as big as bigge may be. If she be shrewd or wicked with her horn it is an error but no fault, for it shows mettle and goodness. Let thy cow be four years before she calve and at ten years sell her."

Sheep.—Sheep were gradually becoming the most important agricultural asset on account of their wool; and the turning of arable land into sheep walks was the cause of much discontent and unemployment.

Goats.—These were kept sometimes mixed with sheep, but they were *not* popular.

Pigs (29 B.C.).—The pigs of the 1400's were lean active little foragers—very bristly and wild. They were herded through the common lands, gouging up roots and fattening upon the autumn acorns. The necessity for fattening, killing and salting the pork for winter made these acorns useful, hence the belabouring of oak trees pictured in old calendars. Pigs were the poorer labourers' chief resource—their skin fetched 2d. and 8d., and their meat was winter provision.

Poultry.—Poultry was important on account of the enormous amount and variety of birds eaten. They

formed also a supply of fresh meat available during the winter. Geese were often herded upon the commonlands like cattle—cocks and hens were pent up for fattening. All poultry was high priced and fat in the autumn, after the birds had pecked over the stubble fields, clearing up the fallen corn.

HERDING.—The animals belonging to the peasants, or flocks and herds from special communities would be collected together and taken to graze upon the common lands under charge of a herdsman. The arrangement varied considerably—but usually the animals were collected "as soon as the dew be gone" and brought back "before the night fell." The herdsman would have some fixed rate of payment and liabilities, and must have had a busy time of it, for commonlands were wild and rough.

A sheep-herd would have a tar-box always with him to combat scab (see 13th Century), and all herdsmen would have a staff and a dog, and frequently a pipe; for the dogs were trained to music calls—high insistent notes meaning "Go seek, seek, seek"—or low ones: "Come home." This beautiful and clever type of dog training is continued to-day in some very remote districts.

Country Folk Getting a Lift in a Four-wheeled Waggon.

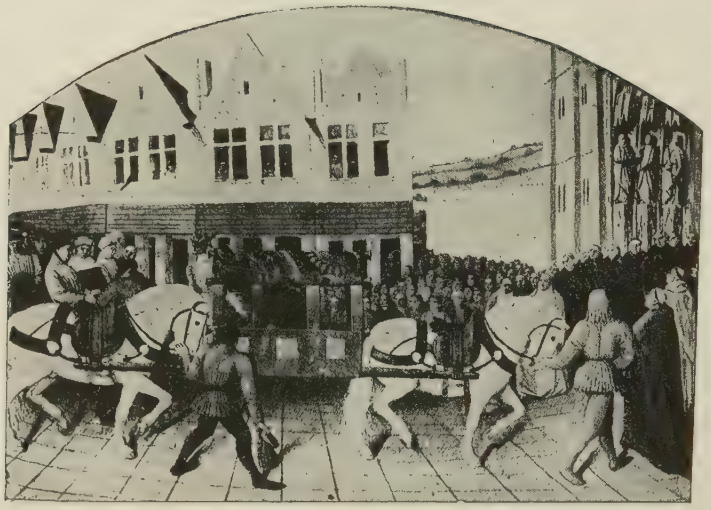
(a) More Luggage and Much Rope.

(b) A Two-wheeled Cart, with Spike Iron Wheels.

(a) The Roads Were Very Bad.

The wise driver rode *on* the horse, not *in* the cart.

(b) This Type of Covered Litter was only Used for Royalty, Great Ladies of the Land, or Invalids.



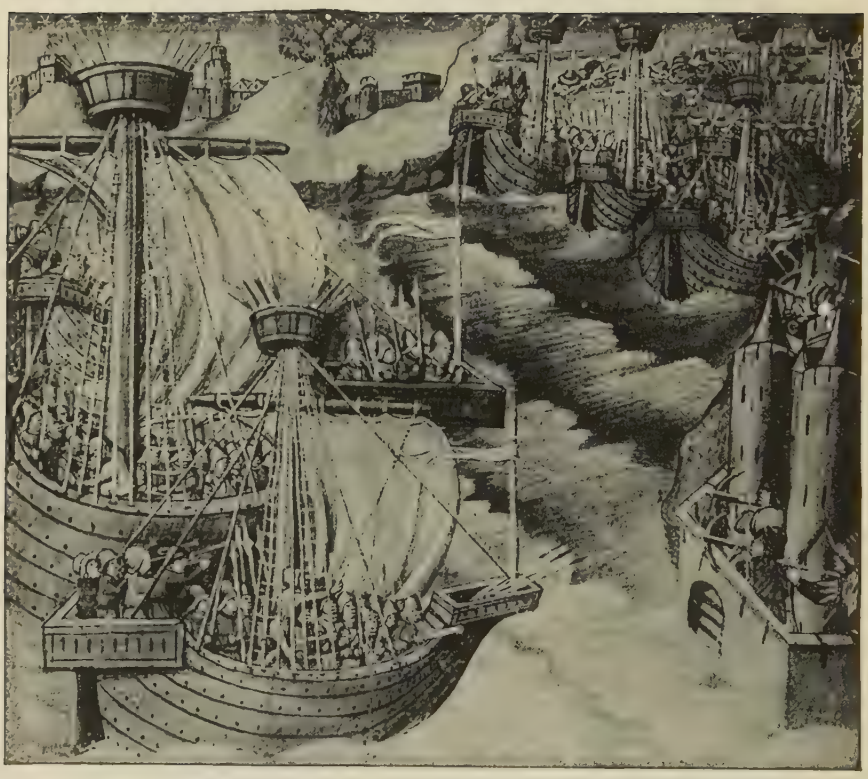
(a) The Litter of Some Great Old Man Approaching a Church.

The clergy stand on the steps.

(b) These *mounting* Steps Were Found in Every Courtyard.

Note the horse drapery.

THE COVERED LITTER AND ARMED ESCORT OF SOME GREAT LADY.



Troop Ships Attack a Fort at the Mouth of a River.

V

Trades

Trades. (Apprentices, Tally-Sticks, Family Records, Working Hours, Glass, Pewter, Iron, Hardware Prices, Stone Carving, Wood Carving, Quarries, Gold and Silver Smiths, Coal, Mines, Ventilation, Cloth, Dyes, Linen, Upholstery, Hemp, Money, Seals, Shops, Fairs).—The training for all trades was very direct, the lad being first apprenticed to some master worker, alone or among others. The terms varied in service and number of years, but they always included the hard, dull rudiment of the craft and free time to practise and learn it—in return for services given. After the lad had learnt his job and could do a satisfactory piece of work he became a journeyman, i.e., he could practise and be paid for what he did. Then he must present a special piece of work for approval by the head "masters" of his guild. This was his "masterpiece," and if it was very good he was passed as master craftsman in his guild.

Tally Sticks (pl. 58 (a)).—Tally sticks were still the chief register of work done or payments made. For a gang of workers the sticks would be laid side by side and

notched across each day. Therefore if any man was absent his stick would lack the notch, and he could not claim pay for that day's work. A cheat could not cut his own stick, for the notch would not lie in line with the rest of the groove. Try this system yourself with a bundle of pencils, and see how easily it works.

Family Records.—Family records were also cut in this way upon the cottage doorplate or lintel beams of a home, and the value and ownership of these records were recognised, and grants and laws made to preserve them when possible—even if the rest of the house had to be burnt for plague or pulled down for a war.

Working Hours.—We must remember there was no serviceable artificial light, so the working hours for all trades varied as much as the weather. Builders and outdoor workers in general began work by earliest daylight and had a quarter of an hour's break about eight o'clock. During the long hot hours of summer the dinner-hour at noon was followed by an extra half hour's rest, and there was another break about five or six o'clock. All work stopped finally at dusk.

There were very few household glasses, but plenty of vessels for doctors and scientists. Some good coloured glass was made in England, and window glazing became more common. For this the molten glass was whirled around at the end of a rapidly twisted pole till it spread out thin, cold and stiff, like a huge uneven penny. This circle was then broken off the pole and cut into squares.

The middle piece (around the pole) was a thick rough knob and all the pieces were ridged. These wavy surfaces catching the light, make the little panes very bright to look at and very lively to look through.

Pewter.—Pewterers held a special position in English trade. The workers were so skilful and the designs so simple and good that a set of English pewter for the table was a valued acquisition in Europe. The soft rich metal was kept well scoured with finely sifted sand and oil and rubbed with a leather. The dull leaden look of unused pewter gives no idea of its glowing polished beauty when actually in daily use.

Iron.—Iron was imported from Spain and Scandinavia and was plentiful in the Weald, but not deeply worked. It was smelted with wood on piled hearths or in kilns; draughts were negotiated on windswept hills or elaborate well designed bellows were worked by man or water power.

Hardware Prices.

Locks.—In 1401 a granary lock cost 1s. The size and strength of the lock would be more important for this type than intricacies.

Axe.—In 1449, 1s. for a wood-cutter's axe.

Plane.—In 1490, 1s. 8d.

Needles.—In 1496, 5d. the 100.

Iron Pincers.—In 1496, 4d. the 100.

Saws.—In 1406, at 7d.

Stone Saws.—In 1406, at 3s. 8d.

Whetstones.—In 1406, at 1s. 4d.

Stone Carving (see "Quarries") (pl. 45).—Stone carving was wonderfully good. Alabaster specially was favoured during this century, and the translucent stone lent itself to colouring, gilding and enrichment. English carvers were well known on the continent.

Wood Carving (pl. 52).—The carpenters of this century put their most excellent work into the architecture. Ceilings and roofs were beautifully designed and carried out, but wherever wood was used, from a great house beam down to a little wooden spoon for a child, it was well used, with an instinctive sympathy and understanding. Many of the wooden figures carved for church altars or effigies have perished, but enough are left for us to realize their worth and our loss. The carved wood was often painted and gilt, and it is well to remember that this *dark* oak we think of was when first cut a light honey colour. There was nothing gloomy about an oak panelled room when it was creamy white and lightly polished with wax over a blue and gilt enrichment!

Quarries (pl. 41 (a)).—Suitable stone was carried great distances for building purposes, chiefly by water. On this account it was frequently rough-shaped at the quarry, which indicates very definite working plans and skilled pattern makers, of which we find little trace.

Gold and Silver Smiths (pl. 54 (b), 55).—The rich delighted in gold and silver pieces to adorn their tables or

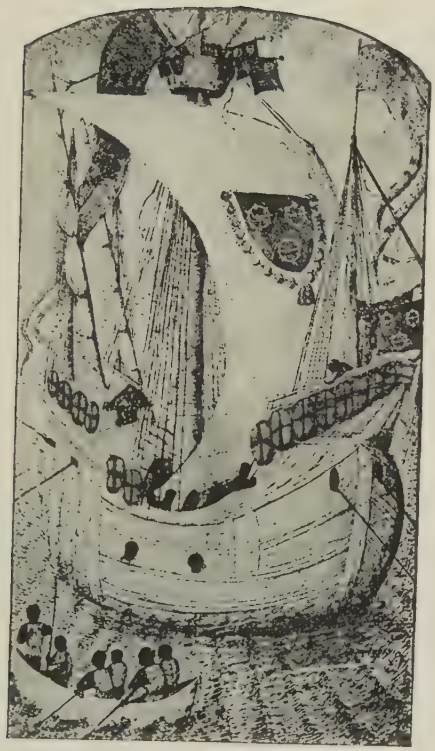
(a) Ladies with Luggage Land from the Sea.

Notice the porters' methods of carrying the boxes.

(b) Loaded Barges Plying upon an Inland Waterway.

A Ship Grounding upon Rocks.

The hurriedly-loosened sail flutters in the wind.



A Ship Getting Under Way; Anchors Being Hauled Up.

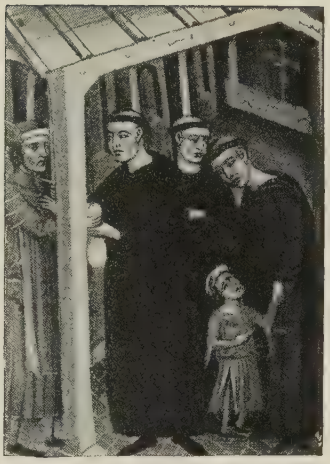
A small boat stands by.

(a) A Bishop Giving a Sword to a Knight.

(b) Confirmation.

(c) An Ordination (the Besting).

(a) A Burial.



(b) A Child Being Handed Over to the Care of Monks.

(c) Choir Practice.

Note the horn-rimmed spectacles.

CHILDREN WITH STRAWS BLOWING SOAP BUBBLES.

to decorate their private chapels. It was an evidence of wealth, a safe insurance of capital.

Coal.—Coal was little used—burning ill and smokily upon the flat hearths designed for wood. It was despised as fuel and solemn warning given against sitting over the evil stinking fumes. It was burnt where found on the surface, as sea coal, and sometimes used for smelting metals. It was carried down from Newcastle by sea when the woodlands of the Weald failed.

Mines.—The mining of this century does not reach a very great depth. *Drainage* was a great difficulty, using wooden pumps or a dredging arrangement of continuous chain and buckets. This is one reason why the horizontal shaft continued so long—it formed a natural outlet for the water; the horizontal shaft entering through the side of the mountain was usually tried first, but vertical shafts were in use, with pulleys for the ore and ladders for the men.

Ventilation was managed by a system of weather-vanes dividing the shaft above ground. The miners' legislation is very interesting, as their unions or societies had most extraordinary and comprehensive codes of self-government. The necessity for judgment by fellow workers who understood the special conditions is realised.

Cloth (pls. 43 (b), 44 (a), 46, 47 (a)).—For details of manufacture we must study the earlier centuries, as there were no strikingly new developments and only tentative changes in loom makes and sizes. The workers

continued to become more collective in method and capitalist cloth merchants increased in numbers. Open workshops were compulsory and vigilance by guilds and searchers incessant, but the nature of cloth renders this trade particularly open to fraud, so that all legislation against stretching, padding and covering defects, etc., was useless to prevent our foreign trade declining through bad workmanship to "the great dishonour of our Countree."

Small quantities of cloth could be bought by the yard, but even with that simple measure could you gain an inch by marking the end of the stick with your thumb and putting down the stick again on the further side—"Give him an inch and he'll take an ell!" So they took to putting the whole hand down next; and there had to be laws about that!

Larger quantities were sold by the piece, and the loose end-threads ensured it was not cut shorter. If the searchers found the cloth woven shorter they cut off these threads and the goods had to be sold as remnants.

Dyes (pl. 40 (a)).—The dyes were nearly all vegetable, and the colours such as can be studied to-day in a real Highland tweed. Woad was the basis of many colours and was imported as dry lumps, which needed special preparation according to the colour required. Various barks, roots and lichens give quite bright dyes.

In one 1400 recipe the leaves are laid down on the bottom of an iron pot under a perforated board and the

cloth dyed above in the water that boiled up through the holes.

Linen.—Linen was much used, some of it being grown and much of it woven in England. It was worn next to the skin and as sheets for the beds, and the richer establishments used astonishing quantities for tablecloths, napkins, towels, room hangings, etc. The triple deep laying of the altar cloths in some churches is a replica of the ordinary tablecloth methods used in the fifteenth century. A single twelve foot table would need only thirty-six feet of cloth, twenty-four feet of towel cloth! While as many as four long table covers, three sideboard covers, eight napkins, and a bread folder and towel for each guest would be used for one meal. Linen was used for medical dressing and was the only baby wear.

Upholstery (pl. 9).—The hard wooden seats required cushions, and beds had mattresses and pillows. The upholsterers' craft had special laws which show the mediæval epidemics had taught the people something of infection by these things. In these laws are entered: "Many kinds of corrupt bedding, contagious for anyone to lie upon." "Mattrasses of meats' hair, deers' hair, goats' hair, etc., which *is wrought in grease*—if foul, give out, by the heat of a man's body, a savour so abominable, and contagious, that many are destroyed thereby."

Quilts and mattresses were to be stuffed with horsehair, fur, down (i.e., moss), and all feathers properly dressed and cleansed. The inferior "corrupt" goods

might be made privately, but they might not be offered for sale in fairs and markets, etc. These and many other laws kept this craft under the control of its guild.

HEMP (pl. 40 (b)) for ropemaking was grown, and rope made in long twisted lengths—sometimes by hand twisting with a hook or more often by a variety of spinning wheel. There are special notices to prevent workers in hemp from fouling public water or cattle wells with their work.

MONEY.—Coin was comparatively scarce; therefore a great deal of trade was carried on by barter. The chief gold coins were the noble, 80d. to 100d.; rose noble, 10s.; angel 8s. and later the sovereign. There were silver shillings and pennies, but to find really equivalent values is a difficult and controversial matter. Everything was reckoned for value in "marks"—(about 13s. 4d.) The mark was not a coin, but a standard of value, like our guinea; there is now no coin worth a guinea, though people are often paid in guineas.

SEALS.—Seals were important, as reading and writing was not general; a seal or picture was a recognisable mark —understood by all people. The more intricately designed the more was it impossible to counterfeit and therefore safer. The *keeper of the seals* was an important post of great authority. Seals were engraved and carved in England and were of great beauty of design and workmanship.

SHOPS (pl. 55 (b), 56 (b)).—The division of labour enforced by the guilds was reflected in their planning of

(a) People Watching Sports; and a Little Boy Getting a Good View.

(b) Lads Wrestling and Practising Quarter Staff.

(c) Methods of Discipline in a School for the Sons of Noblemen.

(a) A School for the Sons of Rich Noblemen.

(b) A School.

(a) A Picture Interesting for its Details of Dress, Babies' and Children's Clothing and Small Light Drawbridge.

(b) Whip Top.

(c) Whip Top Again, and a Curious Early Use of Carpet or Matting on the Floor.

A Hospital.

It was customary to share beds at inns, too.

the workshops. In the larger towns all the shops of one trade were built in one street and the owners lived in them. Villagers who could not get to market welcomed pedlars, who carried a wondrous variety of goods about the country on horses, donkeys, or afoot.

Fairs.—Fairs could only be held by permission of the king. Important fairs were held on definite dates all over the country, according to the time when a district's chief product was most saleable. The fairs were more like temporary townships than regular markets, and often covered nearly a square mile of land, with regular alleys and roads dividing the various trades represented. The stalls were of wood, and the vendors lived in them during the fair. The owner often lent the ground free, as the dirt and refuse manured his fields so richly.

The great distances travelled and variety of goods sold can be realized by this catalogue taken from a record of Stourbridge Fair, and it will be seen how many goods of foreign manufacture were sold in England. Gascon wine, Milan armour, Venetian glass, Genoese silk and velvet, Flemish cloth, Liège and Ghent linens, Hanse furs and amber, Spanish iron, warhorses and queer beautiful armour and swords for the rich. Russian jewels (the mediæval people really enjoyed jewellery and liked it pretty big); Derbyshire lead, Cornish tin, Worcester and Chester salt, English Highland wool packs, Norwegian tar, slender wood masts, Cumberland and Sussex forged iron; and then there were metal goods of all sorts; corn and

eggs and buttermilk and cheese, fruits and honey, candles, soap, and pots and pans, and sweets and cakes, and music and games, and perhaps a wonderful pageant play that lasted all the week! At fairs people met year after year and heard all the news up and down the country. Priests came to hold meetings and preach, and pilgrims and holy workers sold little tokens and shrine emblems on behalf of their hospitals. There would be pigs and dogs and children and fortune-tellers and everything you can think of. Each fair had a regular law court held in its precincts for settling special fair disputes, which otherwise would have overwhelmed the local jurisdiction. As the fairs were only a few weeks' duration, there was no appeal allowed, but sentence was given and restitutions settled on the spot. The justices must have had a busy time keeping fair play between the simple country folk and the money exchangers and merchants, and undoubtedly there were always many troubles among the tired wayfarers, amid the shouting and the heat. The court of law was called—"The Court of Dusty Feet."

VI

Travel and Transport

Travel and Transport. (Journeys, Pilgrimages, Road Transport, Roads, Luggage, Inland Waterways, Coast Transport, Fishing-Boats, Fish, Warships, Navigation Notes).—(pls. 65–71). Travelling was slow. Men and women went on horseback or on foot, old people and invalids in litters, luggage on pack horses or in a cart. And unless you were rich and influential enough to go from castle to manor as a guest you had to sleep at hostelries en route, but hospitality was freely given and enjoyed (*see* Froissart's account of the Le Foix household). The numerous abbeys and monasteries all made special provision for travellers, in many cases it being part of their religion. And hospitality in the large mediæval communities was much more open and general than to-day in our smaller households. In a contemporary "guide" you are warned to find good fellows to go along with. Not to stay with red haired inn keepers! And when sharing your bed with a complete stranger to enquire what part he prefers and "Let him sleep therein! and do not kick about—"

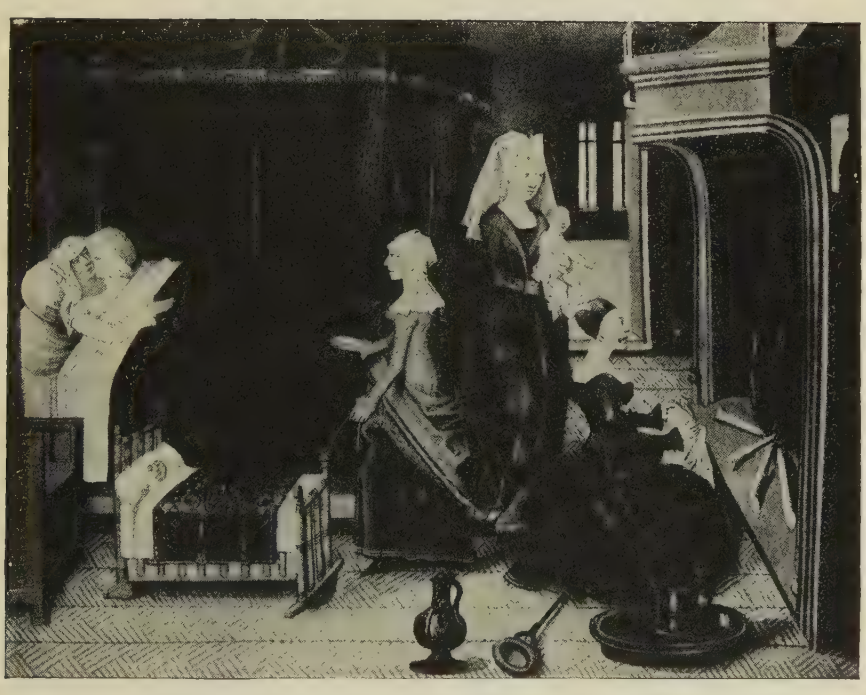
PILGRIMAGES were very popular, and accounted for several regular routes being kept open and repaired, though frequently penitential, they were by no means gloomy. When a party of pilgrims was rebuked for their music and cheerful piping they replied that it was a good thing to take music with them, for should one brother stub his toe against a stone how easily a little tune covered any unpleasant remark!

TRANSPORT—ROAD (pl. 65–69).—The statute price for hiring a horse is 4d. each post, and the houses were good and posts well arranged. Dover to Calais was the usual route for the Continent. For a time it was by law the only port to be used for Calais (71 (a)). Boats left London Harbour also, and the crossing could take a few hours or a few days, according to the wind.

ROADS.—"In London they make much more cost than needeth—they fill the holes and gaps with earth before they cover the tops with gravel, so when it raineth the gravel sinks into the soft mud and the road is but quicksand." Few roads were good enough for carts in bad weather, many places being reached by pack horse only (tin, lead ore, etc., were specially shaped for this mode of transit by law).

Therefore time and price of general transport was very varied, and the jobs were usually done by contract.

As an example, one man and two horse carts cost 1s. 8d. (roughly) per day. In 1406, carriage of 3 pipes of wine from Southampton to Oxford—70 miles—3 carts



A Bedroom Scene.

The fire would burn all night if the logs were pushed inwards.

A Bedside Consultation.

Nightshirts were not used, unlike nightcaps!

NURSING.

The black spots on the floor are wooden pegs catching the low firelight.

(a) A Bedroom.

Soft matting on the floor, and brightly painted walls, form the setting of a sad picture.

(b) Doctors Blood-letting.

(c) Beds Were Remade as Day Couches.

The great hall was no place for a quiet rest.

(a) There Were no Regular Drains; but People Complained of Refuse and Offal Filling the Moat and Destroying the Fish.

(b) A Woman Having a Hot Bath.

(c) A Cellarer Getting a Drink Ready.

AN ARMY ENCAMPMENT (A PICTURE FULL OF DETAIL).

Around it are wooden shooting barriers or shields; a log forms the portcullis at the guarded gate. There are camp kitchens, baggage-waggons, amusement booths, prisoners, wastrels, sentries.

(6 horses to a cart)—there and back in 10 days, 24s. 10d. In 1458, 40 qrs. of malt, Ormesly to Yarmouth—5 journeys (each one, 2s. 8d.). In 1410, a journey from Henley to Oxford (30 miles on a wet road) cost 2d. a mile for a 2-horse cart bringing stone.

Luggage (pl. 63 (b), 71 (a)).—The mediæval chest, kist, coffer, was used for packing all mixed goods (pl. 8, 64 (a)). Merchandise on pack horses would go in barrels, baskets, sacks, leather covered bales (63 (b)), baskets strong and light were much used. Specially made ones for carrying loads of fuel, turfs, earth, stones upon the back (these "kreels" are in use in wild hill country to-day), and every woman had a special dowry chest for linen and clothes, etc.

The Inland Waterways (pl. 71 (b)) were much used by barges, and boats were towed or sailed along; quite small streams were kept dredged and cleared for this purpose, and special regulations governed the placing of mills and bridges, so that they should not prevent free passage of boats. A study of the transport of the stones for Ely and York cathedrals makes us realize how many of the old waterways have weeded up into useless small streams.

Coast Transport.—Quarries near the coast sent stone great distances by shipload, and coasting transport was cheap and good for all trades (pl. 61).

Fishing Boats.—Methods of fishing were little altered from previous centuries. Whales were harpooned and

towed to harbour. Herrings and other shoal fish were brought fresh to harbour in deep well "holds," and in this century great fish right disputes and wars took place around Yarmouth. The pugnacious fishing boats fought from the Straits of Dover all up the North Sea, where next century the Armada ships would drive.

War-ships.—Battles were fought by strength—grappling at close quarters—flinging heavy stones down from high built castles, dropping tar and pitch aflame, driving holes below the waterline, etc.

Ships.—The ships were rather top heavy in build, but good and seaworthy. They had astrolabe and compass, charts and timepieces. In 1415, Prince Henry the Navigator, nephew of Henry IV of England, founded an international bureau of navigation at Cape St. Vincent. He brought knowledge and experience, and men of science, mathematicians, cartographists, skilled shipbuilders and instrument makers there met the boldest experienced seamen. Sailors of any nationality were welcome if they brought fresh knowledge. English sailors knew of these things, and Henry VIII founded schools of navigation at Deptford on the Thames, Hull and Newcastle; but these things were not developed till the ocean voyages of 1500 made them a necessity. During the century the courage and experience of the coastal sailors laid the foundation for our sixteenth century seamanship. English coastal sailors had convoyed men, kings, queens, horses and engines of war to Palestine to the Crusades,

and they had been improving ever since in every way. Read Hakluyt's voyages for this century, and realise the greatness of the fifteenth century sailor.

NAVIGATION NOTES.—Da Gama reached India 1498, and the story of his voyage and that of Christopher Columbus should be read by everyone. Here is an extract from this last: "On 16th, Sunday, they saw pieces of grass on the water of a pale green colour, and one piece a *grasshopper alive;* and on the 19th a sea-fowl." Then the signs ceased, and the sailors threatened and taunted Columbus "that he thought to make himself a great Lord at the expense of their lives; that they had done already their duty . . . and would proceed no farther!"

"Columbus sweetly calmed these tempests with gentle words and rich promises; but there is still no land. . . ." At last he indented with them for three days, and this they promised but not one hour longer . . . On the 11th Oct., two hours after midnight, "they found land . . . an island of 15 leagues, plaine and wooded with a great pool of fresh water; and naked people . . . wondering on the shore."

FISH.—Fish was eaten in large quantities. Owing to transport difficulties, sea fish was not obtainable for inland unless salted or dried, but the cleaning of waterways for boat transport made fresh water fishing more plentiful. Even so the number of fast days and lack of fresh winter meat made special fishponds indispensable

to any large household; and rights of the river, fish traps, and rights connected with the beach were hotly disputed.

Here are some of the principal kinds of fish eaten in the fifteenth century: bream, whiting, herrings, trout, lobsters, eels, cockles, cod, plaice and sole, whelks, crayfish, mussels, dace, roach, salmon, mackerel, minnow (in sauce), oysters, dorry, smelts, halibut, mullet, dogfish, gudgeon, grayling, turbot.

An Army in Triumphant Procession Entering a City.

(a) Sappers Constructing a Bridge.

(b) Trench Warfare.

An important military manœuvre.

A Long Siege.

Horses slaughtered, and hides and offal boiled for soup.

(a) Soldiers Rush up Scaling Ladders with Weapons.

(b) Undermining the Rubble-filled Walls of a Castle.

VII

Church, Law, and Education

CHURCH, LAW, AND EDUCATION. (WARFARE, PUNISHMENTS, MONKS, HERMITS, NUNS, FRIARS, EDUCATION) (pl. 86–95).—Early in the century the country's industries were not yet all important, while the practice of war had developed, with the armies in France, till soldering became a regular occupation for some people, especially the older nobility and their feudal retainers.

It was a period of siege warfare; the castles were so wisely arranged and so strongly built that it took months to break into them. It was better to camp around outside and wait till the inhabitants starved. Sometimes chivalry complicated matters; for while encamped so close together, small factions of the enemies would make temporary friendships, and one reads of battles being postponed till an inter-enemy tournament could be finished; and there was often more fighting over the treaty than over the original quarrel. The chief attacks were made by undermining foundations, scaling walls and flinging in fire, stones and dirt. Fire was specially useful, as it took defenders away from the walls to extinguish it.

The defenders swept the ladders from the walls with swinging tree trunks and beams, and they also "fished" for prisoners with ropes and hooks. Some very nasty directions in a military handbook: "How to throw a stink," cover the question of sewage disposal; and as the book naïvely adds: "Though it will not harm the enemie it will make him dislike himself with annoyance." —(Med. Housebook).

Bows, cross-bows, ballisters, "Cats," armoured cars, spears, swords and elaborate armour were all used, and can be well studied in the pictures. The big cannon, which came later, were unwieldy to move and liable to burst, but they heralded the passing of the long siege and the impregnability of a stronghold, and put an end to *castle warfare* as surely as guns and bullets put an end to personal armour.

Crime and Punishments (pl. 15–17).—Public opinion was very powerful among the less organised communities. An overlord must own very small lands or know them very well to prevent his people taking the law into their own hands and dealing with witches, thieves or unpopular folk themselves without consulting his feudal authority. A whole countryside would unite to hunt down a dangerous criminal or connive at the escape of a popular or kindly man; and even when justice was legally given the punishment administered could be varied in severity to suit the case. Breaking on the wheel or burning at the stake could be made a slow or quick death by the

executioner to please his audience, and a reprieve could sometimes be bought by much shouting. But tortures were used to make prisoners confess or to betray each other. English writers express horror at the methods of the Spanish Inquisitors; but some of our punishments were cruel enough. There were lashings and mutilations, and for the slightest offence the stocks or the pillory, where public opinion was demonstrated first hand by sticks and stones and rotten eggs—*or* kindly sympathy. All punishments were horribly severe, and dungeons and prisons very evil places. Usually the mutilated bodies of criminals were hung up outside the castle walls or on a bridge in the town as a warning to others against crime.

Monks (pl. 74, 75).—The Religious Orders were many and varied, for at this time when learning was so desired, many men were attracted by the studious opportunities of monastic life. Some Orders did educational and charitable work among the peasants on their estate, so many lay brothers and outside workers joined their communities. Some monks were expert farmers, and their estates, cleverly chosen and untiringly worked, made a power for good in the land. This very industry and wisdom made some abbeys grow rich, but they did not use their riches wisely, and it is this mixture of good and evil which makes monastic life at the end of this century so difficult to understand.

Many Hermits (pl. 38 (a)) dwelt in huts and caves and in quiet places to rest and pray—or by a roadside where

they could remind other people to do so; often they offered hospitality to passers-by or guarded a wayside shrine or holy well.

Nuns.—The Orders varied very much in vows, aims, and the severity of training. Sometimes girls would be dedicated to convent life by their guardians, but often nuns were rich sensible women, living in well-arranged communities. If clever, they could do good work and become learned scholars, wise doctors and nurses or skilled writers of chronicles and accounts.

The Friars were well-educated men, who attracted many to their churches because they could preach better sermons than most parish priests.

In the manor the parish church was the centre of religious and social life, and was even used for secular purposes, such as the holding of the manor court. The rector of this church was usually a man drawn from the poorer classes; sometimes of very little education. He often acted as a kind of business agent for the lord of the manor or took up farming. Nobles, merchants, and even moderately wealthy men had their private chaplains, who often had other duties besides priestly ones.

College Education.—The gatherings of students for mutual help in research had become in the eleventh and twelfth centuries regular colleges, where instructors lived and students came and learnt from them and each other. These colleges had become organised; had laws, rules and property; some left to them, some acquired.

(a) Guarding the Ladders while Soldiers Send down Prisoners and Loot.

(b) Crossbow Shooting Behind a Shield.

Transport of Troops with Horses and Armour.

An Early Example of Heavy Artillery.

An Army Attacking a Castle.

The chief method of teaching was to give out by reading —dictation—and discuss the accumulated knowledge of the ancients. Students copied this down and learnt it. Personal enterprise was discountenanced in the circles that gathered around the volumes of revered authorities. For exercises the matter would be discussed, disputed, and argued (so hotly that a strong barrier was interposed between competitors). The lives of great scientists of this age should be studied to realise the terrible rewards of individual enterprise.

School (pl. 77 (c), 78).—The poorer children were sometimes taught by charity in little schools or houses, or in convent or monastery schools. The children of the rich were grouped together under private instructors at some castle or household, and frequently the children were sent quite away from "home" for this, and either money was paid or the matter arranged in friendship or in services. This system had begun when the sons of feudal lords were kept as hostages in their conqueror's castle. They arranged for excellent physical training—usually in advance of the mental—for it was more important for the pupils to be well set up, accomplished and keen, than to have a great store of book wisdom.

VIII

Medicine

Medical Practice (pl. 80–83, 84 (b)).—This was a period of transition. The last two centuries have lost the pure knowledge that came from Arabia and the East, and the Black Death has swept back a period of superstitious wizardry. But plagues taught much of the dangers of contagion, and much good work was being done. Wounds were kept clean and patients' diet sensibly considered—the craze for bleeding was not yet rampant. Extraordinary operations are successfully carried out, and we find remarks about the use of furrier's sutures in joining torn intestines; and plaster cases for setting breaks (in bone) that sound most modern and efficient; and there are recipes for local anæsthetics (to deaden the pain) and queer soporific sponges. It was not so much lack of knowledge among the learned as difficulty in distributing their help. Do not deride the many prayers and incantations that occupied many formulas; they served as measures of time in mixing and taking and helped to impress a too simple cure upon a doubtful patient. Doctors were usually trained at some foreign

A Mêlée of Armoured Knights at Close Quarters, with Long Lances.

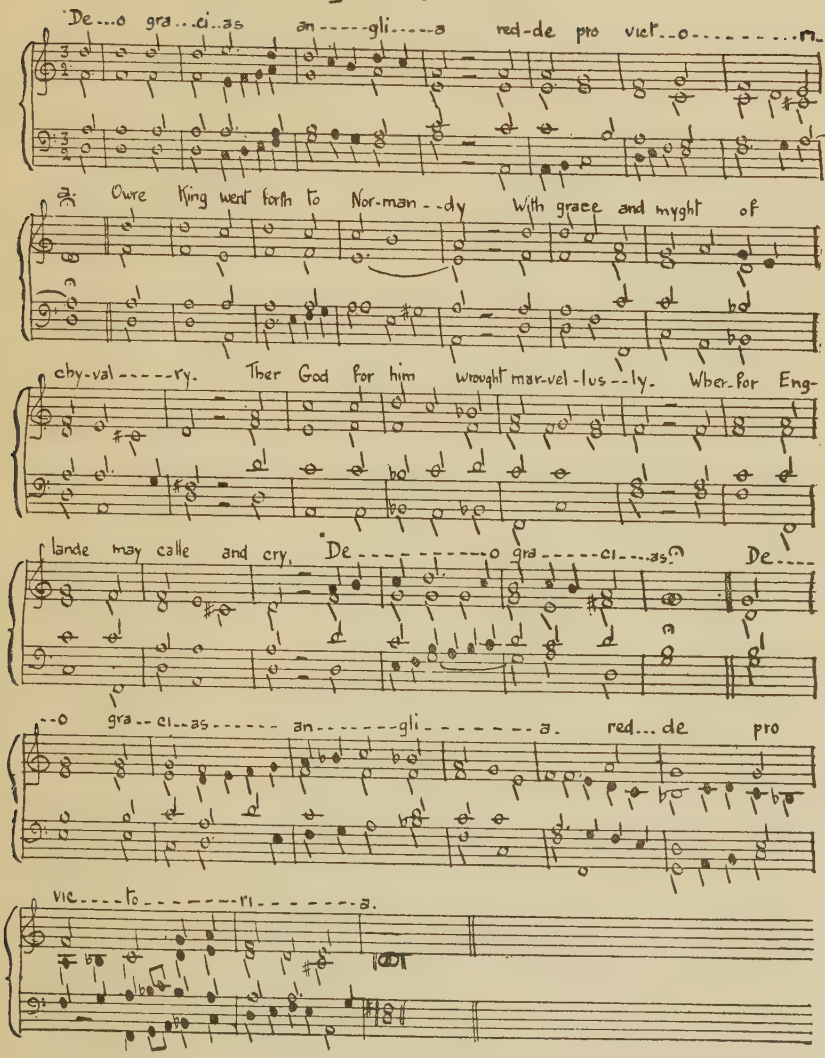
university after taking a degree in England. The training was chiefly memorising the classics, lectures, disputations from past authorities and some practice; if possible, also experience in a hospital.

"A physician visiteth oft the houses and countries of sick men. And seeketh the causes and circumstances of sickness and bringeth contrary medicines. He will wipe and cleanse wounds. And behoveth to all men hope and trust for recovery. He will softly burn that which shall be burnt and cut that which shall be cut; and he spareth not cutting for weeping of the patient. He hideth and covereth the bitterness of medicine with some manner of sweetness that it be not against the sick one's heart. And he letteth him have his will of whose health is neither hope nor trust of recovery."

OUTLINE HISTORICAL CHART, 1400 - 1500

Date	Rulers of England	Rulers of France	Chief Political Events	Important People (*in order of Dates of Birth*)	A Few Notable Buildings.
1400	Henry IV	Charles VI	. . . . .	*Jan Van Eyck*, 1385-1441. Flemish Painter	*Winchester Cathedral Nave*, 1360-1486
1413	Henry V	. . .	. . . . .	*Donatello*, 1386-1466. Florentine Sculptor	*Canterbury Cathedral Nave*, 1382-1400, and Central Tower, 1496-1503
				Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, 1391-1447. English Military Leader and Scholar	
1415	. . .	. . .	Battle of Agincourt	*James I of Scotland*, 1394-1437. Author	*Durham Central Tower*, about 1400
				William of Wayneflete, 1395-1486. English Bishop and Educationist	*York Cathedral Central Tower*, C. 1400-1432
1420	. . .	. . .	Treaty of Troyes	*Luca della Robbia*, 1400-1482. Florentine Sculptor	*Western Towers*, 1433-74
1422	Henry VI	Charles VII	. . . . .		*South Wingfield Manorhouse, Derbyshire*, 1435-40
1429	. . .	. . .	Relief of Orleans	*Joan of Arc*, 1412-1431. French military leader	
1431	. . .	. . .	Burning of Joan of Arc	*Jean Fouquet*, 1415 - 1485. French Miniaturist	*All Souls' College, Oxford*, 1437-43
1453	. . .	. . .	Taking of Constantinople by the Turks		*King's College Chapel, Cambridge*, 1446-1515
1455	. . .	. . .	Beginning of Wars of the Roses	*John Lydgate*, about 1420. English Author	
1461	Edward IV	Louis XI	. . . . .	*William Caxton*, 1430 - 1491. English Printer	*Eton College*, 1441-59, 1469-82 and 16th century
1471	. . .	. . .	End of the Wars of the Roses	*Sir Thomas Malory*, d. 1470. English Author	*Great Chalfield Manor, Wiltshire*, about 1485
1476	. . .	. . .	Introduction of Printing into England	*Warwick the Kingmaker*, 1425-1471. English Nobleman	
1483	Edward V Richard III	Charles VIII	. . . . .	*Hans Memling*, 1430? - 1494 Flemish Painter	*Gloucester Cathedral Tower and Lady Chapel*, 1470-90
1485	Henry VII		Battle of Bosworth	*Andrea della Robbia*, 1435-1525 Florentine Sculptor	*St. George's Chapel, Windsor*, 1473-1537
1492	. . .	. . .	First Voyage of Columbus	*Margaret Beaufort, Countess of Richmond*, 1443 - 1509. English Lady; founder of Colleges	*Magdalen College, Oxford*, 1475-80 *Tower*, 1492-1507
				Botticelli, 1444-1510. Florentine Painter	*Lavenham Church, Suffolk*, 1480-1530
1497	. . .	. . .	First Voyage of Vasco da Gama	*William Grocyn*, 1446?-1519. English Scholar	*Oxburgh Hall, Norfolk*, 1482
				Ghirlandayo, 1449-1494. Florentine Painter	*Henry VII Chapel, Westminster*, 1502-12
1498	. . .	Louis XII	. . . . .	*Leonardo da Vinci*, 1452-1519. Milanese Painter and Sculptor	
				Titian, 1477 - 1576. Venetian Painter.	

The Song of Agincourt


De...o gra...ci..as an-----gli-----a red-de pro vict..o-----m.
Oure King went forth to Nor-man--dy With grace and myght of
chy-val-----ry. Ther God for him wrought mar-vel-lus--ly. Wher-for Eng-
lande may calle and cry. De----------o gra-----ci----as. De----
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vic----to--------ri--------a.

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Elliot, Margaret M., & Dorothy Hartley
AUTHOR

Life and Work of the People of England
TITLE